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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Project was to examine current levels of social studies curriculum development within Rhode Island schools, to investigate related issues, and to produce a written report of the findings. Chapter 1, "A Proposed Framework for K-12 Social Studies Education in Rhode Island Schools," reviews content and concepts for a quality social studies program and evaluates the use of the "widening horizons" model of social studies instruction. Chapter 2, "A Model for Social Studies Program Evaluation," recommends that local school districts commit themselves to ongoing, systematic, and often collaborative evaluation processes. Chapter 3, "Integrating Social Studies Concepts into a Literacy Based K-3 Curriculum," addresses curriculum changes that are required as a result of the passage of the 1987 Rhode Island Literacy and Dropout Prevention Act. Curriculum requirements and four sample social studies lesson plans for teaching students in compensatory, special, limited English, and gifted programs are presented in chapter 4, "Social Studies and Special Populations." Chapter 5 provides six references and reference sources. Appendices include reprints from the journal "Social Education" concerning social studies scope and sequence issues. Graphs and tables are included. (JHP)

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EDUCATION
IN RHODE ISLAND

A Report of the Rhode Island
Social Studies 1986-87 Project

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October 1987

QUALITY
SOCIAL STUDIES
EDUCATION
IN RHODE ISLAND

A Report of the Rhode Island
Social Studies 1986-87 Project

Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 is a joint effort of:

The Rhode Island Department of Education

The Rhode Island Social Studies Association

Rhode Island College

The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement
of the Northeast and Islands

Edited by Merrill Wilk and Janet M. Phlegar

Designed by Stephanie Wallace

This publication is a report of the Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Project, a collaborative effort of the following organizations:

The Rhode Island Deparment of Education

The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands

The Rhode Island Social Studies Association

Rhode Island College and the Center for Educational Management Development

The opinions and recommendations contained in this document are the expressions of the various authors and not necessarily those of the sponsoring organizations.

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FOREWORD

"I know of no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society but with the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take power from them, but to inform their discretion through instruction."

Thomas Jefferson (1820)

The purpose of public education in the United States is to produce an "enlightened citizenry" . . . a difficult goal when Jefferson envisioned it, a seemingly overwhelming goal today as we approach the 21st century. Achievement of this purpose is the essential goal of social studies education.

But what do these lofty statements mean in today's schools and classrooms? How can we develop enlightened citizens who have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to function effectively as members of the local, state, national, and international communities? How can social studies education help us reach these goals? What should that social studies education look like?

An attempt to look at these questions brought four organizations together to start a project now known as Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87. Invited by The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, each of the following organizations was a major contributor to this project: the Rhode Island Social Studies Association, Rhode Island College, and the Rhode Island Department of Education.

This publication is a report of the Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Project. The project brought together Rhode Island educators and the best of research and national thought on social studies curriculum development. The project was designed with the two-fold purpose of: 1) providing a framework for direct participants to process the national debate on what constitutes a quality social studies program, and 2) producing a publication for use by schools and districts undertaking social studies curriculum development and program evaluation. Through the Rhode Island School Staff Institute, this project may be extended to the school and district level by using the results of the project and this document as a catalyst to further staff development.

This project is indebted to the large number of exceptional social studies educators in Rhode Island who contributed to the quality of the project and, therefore, this publication.

This project was possible because of the deeply rooted collaborative spirit in Rhode Island.

Janet M. Phlegar

The Regional Laboratory for Educational
Improvement of the Northeast and Islands

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Steering Committee Members:

James Betres
Department of Education and Human Services
Rhode Island College

Rose Marie Cipriano, President
Rhode Island Social Studies Association

Edward Costa, Director
Department of School Services
Rhode Island Department of Education

William Fasano
Bristol High School

Don Gardner
Rhode Island Department of Education

Maureen Lapan
Rhode Island College

Anne Petry
Henry Barnard School
Rhode Island College

Janet Phlegar
The Regional Laboratory for Educational
Improvement of the Northeast and Islands

John Pitman
Rhode Island Department of Education

Joan Sousa
Principal
East Greenwich, Rhode Island

Joyce Stevos
Social Studies Supervisor
Providence Public Schools

Philip Streifer
Assistant Superintendent
Barrington Public Schools

Jim Turley, Director
Center for Educational Management Development
Rhode Island College

Thanks also go to the additional contributors to the work of the study groups and to this publication:

Alfred Balasco, Mary Bolton, Eileen Borges, Alan Canestrari, Charles Capizano, Emmett Cotter, Barbara DeRobbio, Judith Edsal, Peter Emond, Georgia Eustis, Roger Gagnon, Ray Hoyas, Edmund Leather, Donald Leonard, Gerry Leonard, Albert Lyons, Patricia G. Lyons, Charles Mello, Michael McGee, Annette Mendonca, Charles Mojkowski, Linda Orlando, John Quirk, Patricia Rappa, Judith Richardson, Salvatore Salvo, Anne Stratton, Michael Trofi, Bonnie Ursillo, Donna Jean Freeman Wosencraft, Stephanie Zaidman.

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JMP

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Appendix B: Reprints of articles from Social Education, November/December 1986 issue. Reprinted with permission of the National Council for the Social Studies.

INTRODUCTION

What is a quality social studies program? How is such a program developed? What are some sound practices that can be used to evaluate a social studies program?

The Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Project examined these questions. It was our goal to review the current state of the art on social studies curriculum, to probe and question difficult issues and then to produce a review of these issues for all those in Rhode Island concerned with curriculum in general and social studies in particular. Where possible, we thought it would be useful to present recommendations concerning general approaches -- always recognizing that social studies curriculum decisions are best made at the local level. Our ultimate goal was to provide a forum for study and discussion that would yield useful frameworks to inform local choices about the social studies curriculum. This publication is an effort to record these discussions and the work of the various special interest study groups.

There are many circumstances that framed the timing and tone of this discussion.

- **The National Social Studies Debate:** The current debate is a continuation of an historical discussion about what social studies is or ought to be. To paraphrase David C. King's depiction of the two cross-currents in the national debate as they appeared in an August 1987 issue of Curriculum Update published by ASCD: One current involves the search for an appropriate social education core while the other flows towards a social studies curriculum based on urgent domestic issues and the realities of global interdependence. The former is most likely to be the thrust of state governments, national organizations, and the like while the latter is frequently locally developed or a "grass roots" response to "real world" issues. While these approaches are not necessarily mutually exclusive, the continued debate over what should be taught and how has generated confusion. Often schools and districts that try to accommodate both approaches end up with a thin veneer of coverage and no in-depth investigation. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has been active in these debates but, in an effort to accommodate the accepted standard of local control, has shied away from recommending an approach to social studies. NCSS has published a series of approaches to addressing social studies scope and sequence as well as other issues through its journal, Social Education. Many key articles are reproduced in the Appendices of this publication with permission of the National Council for the Social Studies.

- **The Education Reform Movement of the 1980s:** The national debate over the social studies, in part, takes its current shape as a response to the major studies on education that came out in 1983 and 1984. Beginning with A Nation At Risk, and with each additional study, the evidence shows students do not do well in social studies and they do not like social studies subjects. The studies point to a need to reaffirm the value of history and, in general, they support increased emphasis on civics and geography. Emphasis on higher order thinking skills, often espoused as a goal of social studies courses but often abandoned in practice, needs to develop within the social studies curriculum. Finally, social studies is being taught in a vacuum of values. While dealing with values appropriately is a thorny issue, it must be addressed in ways that take community concerns into account.

- **Educational Trends in Rhode Island:** Two specific state actions have had impact on the current discussion: The Basic Education Program (BEP) and the Literacy and Drop Out Prevention Act of 1987. Since the BEP became official, much activity in local school districts has focussed on ensuring that districts have sound curriculum and methods to evaluate their programs. Curriculum committees in districts are in various stages of curriculum design and development. Because of the renewed interest in curriculum generated at first by the BEP, school districts are searching for information on the state of the art in various disciplines and conducting reviews of recent research and best practice available to inform their own curriculum design questions. While the Rhode Island Department of Education has been able to offer assistance in several areas, the Department is not set up to address each discipline. Because of the complexity of the debate at the national level over social studies, it appears that Rhode Island school districts engaged in social studies curriculum development need some source of information to frame the context of their discussion about social studies.

  In addition to the impact of the BEP, the passage of the Rhode Island Literacy and Drop Out Prevention Act of 1987 sets the stage for further curriculum action. Districts are required to focus the K-3 curriculum on achieving literacy and numeracy outcomes. It is important to integrate key social studies concepts into the K-3 curriculum in effective ways.

  Finally, the widespread interest in school and college articulation in Rhode Island has stimulated fundamental questions about the content and design of curriculum in the schools and colleges. Curriculum decisions at one level have inevitable influence on decisions at the other levels. They affect the range and quality of programs throughout the system and must be considered in light of their ultimate impact. If a social studies program is to be universally effective, it must be the product of a cooperative venture, including scholars from the schools and colleges, and reflective of the entire social studies community.

All of these circumstances, at the national and state levels, served to focus interest on social studies as Rhode Islanders were celebrating the 350th anniversary of the founding of their state. Over the course of the past year, under the collaborative umbrella of four organizations, investigation and discussion about the issues in social studies has resulted in publication of this guide -- a fitting birthday present on the 200th birthday of the United States Constitution!

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BOOK

This publication is intended as a review of the major issues involved in designing and developing a social studies curriculum K-12. It is published for use by those who are responsible for that process in a school or a district, be they teachers, administrators, or others.

CHAPTER ONE: A Proposed Framework for K-12 Social Studies Education in Rhode Island Schools reviews content and concepts of a quality social studies program and makes a recommendation about using the currently widely adopted "widening horizons" approach with improvements. Appendices A and B are reprints of primary source articles that contain a vast storehouse of information that will be of use to those designing the curriculum.

CHAPTER TWO: A Model for Social Studies Program Evaluation makes a strong recommendation for a model of program evaluation that can be useful in social studies.

CHAPTER THREE: Integrating Social Studies Concepts into a Literacy Based K-3 Curriculum addresses issues concerning changes in the K-3 curriculum that must come about based on the passage of the Literacy legislation of 1987. A paper by Betres and Petry details concepts and skills that need to be included in a primary social studies program.

CHAPTER FOUR: Social Studies and Special Populations discusses the importance of social studies to all populations and includes sample lesson plans.

CHAPTER FIVE: Selected References in Social Studies Education gives sources for more information.

APPENDICES A and B: Reprints from Social Education on scope and sequence.

WHAT THIS PUBLICATION IS NOT

Several notes are in order about what this publication is not. It is not a state social studies curriculum guide. There are several excellent state-level social studies curriculum guides that could be most useful to Rhode Island school districts; we did not feel the need to generate one more. This is a review of a variety of issues in social studies education and, where appropriate, a series of recommendations.

This book is an attempt to inform those who need to design or develop social studies curriculum in their school or district. It is not intended to be a direct teaching tool, although the contents of the chapter on special populations may lend itself to that adaptation.

This publication does not represent a single, tightly knit discussion on all the issues. In fact, because each chapter was generated by a group of Rhode Island educators, each with his/her own experience and perspective, there is no single person or group who retains overall control of the contents. The way the RISS '86-'87 Steering Committee (which is composed of representatives of each of the four collaborating institutions as well as individuals who volunteered to chair each of the main interest groups for further discussion) described this publication was as a "proceedings of the work of the committees." It is intended to be a loosely coupled publication that addresses most of the major points in the social studies debate. Where a chapter makes a recommendation about an approach, that represents the consensus of the committee that investigated the topic of that chapter.

SEVERAL CONCLUSIONS

Several currents of thought run through the deliberations of the various study groups. Taken together they may be seen as a set of recommendations and principles of the Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Project.

- Social studies curriculum is best developed at the local level.
- The social studies curriculum should emphasize the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to function as an effective citizen in a global community, developing a world-wide perspective.
- Emphasis should be on depth and understanding rather than "coverage" of vast amounts of detailed information.
- The curriculum must promote appreciation and understanding of our cultural heritage.
- The fundamental reason for public education in our democracy is to produce enlightened citizens who are capable of ensuring our survival as a free nation. The social studies must promote this goal and must work to incorporate and integrate the necessary concepts into the school and community as a whole.

Janet M. Phlegar
The Regional Laboratory for
Educational Improvement of
The Northeast and Islands

Edward Costa
Rhode Island Department
of Education

Rose Marie Cipriano
Rhode Island Social
Studies Association

James Turley
Center for Educational
Management Development,
Rhode Island College

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

This is a publication that is intended to facilitate discussions about the nature of social studies programs. It is an attempt to suggest an agenda for dialogue. The driving assumption here is that communication and curriculum are interrelated to the extent that curriculum without meaningful communication is ritualistic and meaningless. Thus, the ideas contained herein should be shared through a process that will encourage enlightened discourse.

It might be useful if you frame your discussion around such questions as:

- Why should social studies be given a high priority among the academic areas in the K-12 curriculum?
- What constitutes a quality social studies program? (Consider: content, context of the classroom and school, materials, methodologies, and professional attitudes and opportunities for professional growth).
- How do you know that your program goals are being achieved?
- How are you creating an instructional climate that assures access, by all students, to the cultural heritage locked in the disciplines of the social studies?
- How is literacy in social studies similar to and/or different from general literacy?

CHAPTER ONE

A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR K-12 SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION IN RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLS

BY: James Betres, William Fasano, and Rose Marie Cipriano

WITH: Eileen Borges, Barbara DeRobbio, Peter Emond, Roger Gagnon, Ray Hoyas, Edmund Leather, Gerry Leonard, Patricia Lyons, Annette Mendonca, Linda Orlando, Patricia Rappa, Judith Richardson, Ann Stratton, Michael Trofi, and Bonnie Ursillo.

For decades, the dominant social studies curriculum organization has been the "expanding environments" or "widening horizons" model. The curriculum progresses as follows:

K - Self, Community, Home
1 - Families
2 - Neighborhoods
3 - Communities
4 - State History, Geographic Regions
5 - U.S. History
6 - World Cultures, Western Hemisphere
7 - World Geography or History
8 - American History
9 - Civics or World Cultures
10 - World History
11 - American History
12 - American Government

As children grow and develop, their world expands from that of self and family, to larger social elements such as school, neighborhood and community, to their home state, country, and the rest of the world.

Recent surveys of 47 of the 50 states indicate that this organizational pattern is found in the overwhelming majority of states. This "locally adopted national curriculum" withstood the millions of dollars and concentrated efforts of thousands of professionals associated with the New Social Studies movement of the 1960's and 1970's. This is not to say that social studies materials and methods have remained unchanged, but rather that the framework of old appears to have accommodated these changes.

Within the elementary grades this framework is strongly reinforced by the existence of many text series, almost all of which are keyed to the expanding environments design. Additionally, given the attention to reading levels in the elementary grades and the corresponding abilities of children, it is extremely difficult for the social studies sequence to be changed once a text series is adopted. Some greater latitude is available at the secondary level where the combination of student abilities and the more non-developmental nature of the organization permits the subjects to be switched a bit more easily among grades. Therefore, given the limited flexibility of the present framework, and given the fact that it appears difficult to replace, Rhode Island public schools should simply accept the expanding environments design and strengthen present K-12 programs in order to ensure that students meet the citizenship objectives of our contemporary society.

Existing programs can be strengthened in a number of ways. The following four-step process is one that should be considered by local professionals.

1. Educators must identify those portions of the present design that represent their best efforts. Specific units, particularly those emphasizing relationships between local history and issues and broader historical and society-wide issues, should be identified and used as models for designing additional units. We urge maximum allocation of resources to the development and dissemination of units stressing the inter-relationships between local events and issues and broader historical and societal developments.

2. Educators must develop a concept of citizenship education that will serve as the source of ideas for developing student outcomes for the local K-12 social studies curriculum.

3. Educators should identify those areas of the present K-12 program requiring improvement, modification, replacement, or deletion. An emphasis on depth rather than coverage should characterize the local K-12 social studies curriculum.

4. Educators must access and use the research base in social studies education for purposes of curriculum and instructional change.

A clear sense of purpose, identification of local program strengths and weaknesses, attention to frequent linkage of local events to broader developments, and the systematic use of research to direct change must characterize the strengthening of the local K-12 curriculum.

KEY ASSUMPTIONS FOR STRENGTHENING LOCAL K-12 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

1. With few exceptions, the public schools have adopted the traditional scope and sequence associated with an expanding environments design. This design begins with topics purported to be the primary environment of the young learner (i.e., self, family, school, neighborhood, and city) and then progresses to topics of state, regional, national, and international significance for the older learner.

3. The students will develop positive self-esteem.

4. The students will develop a sense of social responsibility.

5. The students will develop an aesthetic awareness.

When the Scope and Sequence subcommittees of the Rhode Island Social Studies 1986-87 Project discussed the implications of a K-12 social studies program for Rhode Island school districts, they reviewed several curriculum guides to nationally recognized programs and found they could be useful to Rhode Island school districts. Each school district's K-12 curriculum committee may then review such programs and create one to meet the specific needs of its students and community.

As districts begin to focus on their social studies program, faculty should be provided with readings, information, and time for reflection and analysis. From this analysis, the faculty in each school district should identify major thrusts and basic principles to guide their program.

A statement of the district's social studies philosophy will focus on social studies content, give direction to the program, and communicate the purpose of social studies education to the parents and to the community.

The Essentials of the Social Studies -- a document produced by the National Council for Social Studies in 1981 -- can be used to enumerate the goals for responsible and effective citizenship within democratic communities. Goal statements will lead to the articulation of the scope and sequence segment of the district's social studies program.

Appendices A and B of this document include reprints of original source articles from two issues of Social Education, the journal of the National Council for Social Studies. They are included because they encompass the major points in the national debate over what constitutes social studies and how social studies should be taught in school.

Appendix A presents the preliminary report done by the National Council for the Social Studies in November of 1983 on Social Studies Scope and Sequence. Appendix B is a sequence of articles presenting alternatives to the 1983 NCSS report and puts the original discussion in more current terms.

Both appendices provide detailed discussion and examples that will be of most value to the district undertaking curriculum development in social studies.

2. This design, with few exceptions, is the core of present K-12 social studies textbooks.

3. Both experts and publishers agree that these materials must be augmented if one is to master the major concepts, skills, and values associated with a quality social studies program.

4. Augmenting the text means supplying the learner with an adequate number of learning activities stressing concrete examples and experiences drawn from the learner's own environment. Such augmentation provides a needed link between the learner's experiences and the content of textbooks that are designed in general terms to meet the diverse needs of a national market.

5. Teachers require considerable assistance and resources if they are to design such transitional or linking activities for their students. Without this support, social studies content will continue to be learned "for the test" rather than for its value in helping one better understand one's evolving role in a democratic society.

KEY SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

We believe any social studies curriculum should attend to the following student objectives:

1. The students will be able to apply key concepts and ideas from the social studies to the issues and topics identified in their texts and in their local neighborhood, community, city, state, nation, and the world.

2. The students will have numerous opportunities to develop and refine higher level thinking skills within the context of the topics and issues of the K-12 social studies programs.

3. The students will acquire a set of democratic attitudes and values reflecting the freedoms and guarantees found in our nation's and state's legal/political documents.

4. The students will become involved and responsible citizens who contribute to a diverse yet interdependent, communal, national, and global society.

5. The students will become aware of current and continuing issues in an historical perspective.

We believe that the social studies program should also heavily support the following school-wide learning objectives:

1. The students will become increasingly responsible for their own learning, which will be a life-long pursuit.

2. The students will accept and appreciate others, recognizing individual and cultural similarities, differences, and contributions.

CHAPTER TWO

A MODEL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM EVALUATION

BY: Philip A. Streifer

WITH: Alfred Balaso, Alan S. Canestrari, Charles Capizano, and Georgia Eustis

PURPOSE

The purpose of this chapter is to set forth a practical model of program evaluation that is applicable to the social studies and other content areas. While many "textbook" approaches to program evaluation are lengthy and cumbersome, the Rhode Island Social Studies Project Evaluation Committee (here after, the Committee) has created a simple and practical program evaluation model that can be implemented in Rhode Island schools.

The Committee first reviewed the program evaluation literature that takes a theoretical and philosophical view of the evaluation process. Models presented are often complex. Nevertheless, the Committee came away with an idea about which components to include in the evaluation model. Second, the Committee called in program evaluation expert Dr. Charles Mojkowski, Executive Director of the Rhode Island Leadership Academy, to help finalize a model. Dr. Mojkowski had been developing a program evaluation model for the Barrington school district in concert with this project. He has had extensive experience in this area and with his help the Committee was able to formalize a practical model for program evaluation. The following program evaluation model is based on Dr. Mojkowski's recommendations.

Even though the suggested model is as practical as the Committee believes possible, school administrators and school committees should be aware that even a scaled down version will be expensive to implement, because all curriculum areas must be evaluated under the State's Basic Education Program. The subsequent impact on curricular programs, however, will be well worth the investment; a good program evaluation system will lead to improved teaching and learning.

Program evaluation in social studies is no different than that for English, mathematics, music, art and so on. This is a "generic" model of program evaluation because the steps outlined here can be applied to any type of educational program. While some of the examples used in our illustrations will be taken from the social studies, any subject matter illustrations could be substituted.

OVERVIEW OF THE MODEL

What follows is a brief outline of the evaluation model's four basic questions, which are fully described later in this text.

Question 1. What does the literature and research state a quality program should encompass? A district should contact professional organizations and conduct a review of the literature to answer this question. Such a review is a standard activity that is not improved by doing a separate one in each district. In many subject areas a review of the literature and research will yield a coherent current view of what a quality program should encompass. As the national debate over social studies continues, such a literature review will reveal a number of approaches or perspectives to consider. The Committee strongly recommends that districts enter into collaboratives to share the cost of these reviews. For example, a number of districts could agree to a five-year review cycle in which each district agrees to conduct one major program area review of the literature during one of the years of the cycle. With proper planning, the cycle could result in one curriculum area being researched each year leading to the other research questions listed below.

Once a district has determined what a quality program should include, it should compare its present curriculum to the research. For example, if the research indicates that a quality social studies program should have a balance between U.S. studies, global themes and several disciplines of the social sciences, and the district finds that its scope and sequence shows an imbalance toward U.S. studies, then an adjustment should be made. In one Rhode Island district, Barrington, this very case was found to exist and that district subsequently introduced more global themes into its curriculum and allocated less time to U.S. studies.

Question 2. To what extent is the present curriculum being implemented? This question is posed at the classroom and teacher level. It seeks to determine to what extent the stated curriculum is actually being implemented in the classroom. It is probably one of the most difficult questions to answer with any precision, but also one of the most important aspects of the program evaluation. This question can be answered to some degree through faculty questionnaires. There are a number of possible outcomes from this evaluation question other than a simple yes or no to the basic question, "Is the present curriculum being implemented?"

Question 3. To what extent are the students mastering the program objectives? This question can only be answered through criterion-referenced testing. However, because of the extreme cost to develop and administer these tests, the Committee strongly recommends that districts enter into collaboratives for the purpose of test development, scoring and statistical analysis. The Committee recognizes that even a vigorous effort to develop criterion-referenced tests will nevertheless come up short of the goal of testing every student on every objective each year. Testing all students in all academic areas each and every year will leave little time for instruction. Therefore, the Committee recommends that students be spot tested from year to year because it is simply impractical to test every instructional objective each year.

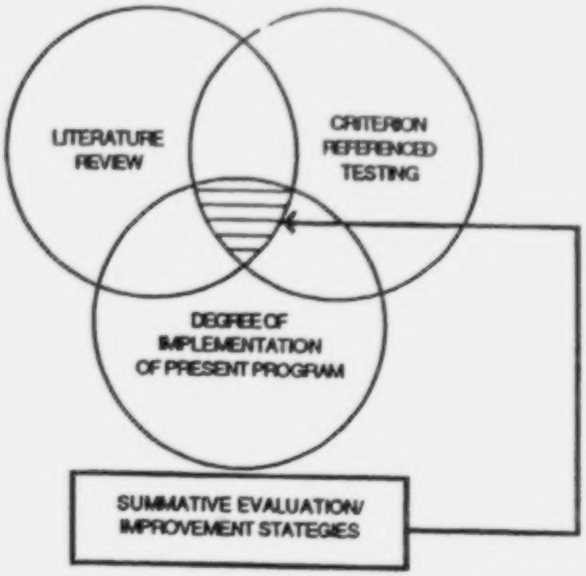
Question 4. In summative terms, how good is the program? Having satisfactorily answered questions 1, 2, and 3 the district can judge the overall quality of the program. Moreover, a number of program recommendations will most likely have emerged from the process. These recommendations should be implemented in the following years before the cycle begins again. The Committee recommends a five to six year cycle. The research questions should be answered over the first two years of the cycle with implementation and staff development over the next four. Depending on the resources of the district, criterion-referenced testing might continue throughout the entire six year cycle. As an outside check on the quality of the program, the district should cross reference test items within their own criterion-referenced tests with items on some standardized measure, such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in the social studies content area. This practice will provide a way to determine if the program goals and desired student outcomes are in reasonable congruence with national standards.

NON-LINEAR MODEL

The previous discussion would suggest that this model is linear in nature. That is, question 1 leads to question 2 which leads to question 3 which ends in a summative conclusion about the entire program. This is not necessarily the case. The answers to each question may depend on any number of factors, yielding in some cases, rather unexpected outcomes. For example, district testing might indicate that students are doing poorly on mathematics problem solving in grades two, three and four. Armed with only this information, the district might seek to improve scores by asking teachers to spend more class time on this skill. However, a review of the literature may have determined that students need a grounding in concrete operations through a manipulative approach before they are able to solve abstract problems. In this case, the literature revealed that the reason why students were performing poorly on problem solving was because they had not achieved a solid foundation in concrete operations. The district would have made a costly mistake if it had acted on the results of the testing program without consulting current research.

In another example, the literature review might indicate that the district need not spend much time on review of western political systems in grade 10. In a faculty survey, the district may have found that, in fact, teachers are allocating little time to this concept. Therefore, the district simply needs to modify its existing curriculum guide in this area. If, on the other hand, both the curriculum guide and the literature indicate a great deal of time should be spent on review of political systems and the faculty survey indicates it is not spending much class time on this subject, then more in-depth study is necessary to determine the problems faculty are facing in implementing the curriculum. This may lead to some sort of inservice training.

The non-linear program evaluation model is best described by the following diagram:


LITERATURE REVIEW
CRITERION REFERENCED TESTING
DEGREE OF IMPLEMENTATION OF PRESENT PROGRAM
SUMMATIVE EVALUATION/ IMPROVEMENT STATEGIES

There are a number of possible interactions among the outcomes or findings of each phase of the program evaluation. In this sense, evaluation is formative in nature; judgments are constantly made based on evaluation findings that in turn lead to program changes and improvements. There is never any final "summative" conclusion. While the district may conclude that its social studies program is in need of improvement and that certain concepts need to be strengthened while others eliminated, those summative conclusions immediately turn into recommendations and change strategies for program improvement.

DETAILED DISCUSSION

Following is a more in-depth discussion of each of the four curriculum evaluation questions.

Question 1. Is the design of the curriculum adequate?

Phase One

To answer this question, a district should review current research to determine exactly what should be taught, state or local programming requirements, and local needs. In other words, districts should determine inputs to the evaluation, or those documents or programming requirements that must be taken into consideration when conducting the curriculum evaluation.

Before an evaluation can be made of a district's existing program, a review of the literature must be done to establish a standard against which the existing curriculum can be compared. It makes no sense to review an existing curriculum if it is not compared with an ideal program -- one that curriculum experts in the field believe is appropriate.

There are many ways to conduct a literature review. Perhaps the easiest and least expensive is to contact state departments of education with large curriculum departments and ask for copies of their latest curriculum guides. For example, the states of California, Connecticut, New York and Wisconsin are good resources among many. The Curriculum Resources Library at Rhode Island College may have many of these guides on their shelves. The purpose of reviewing these guides is not to find one to duplicate, but rather, to review what curriculum experts are presently stating comprises a quality curriculum in terms of content and processes, scope and sequence.

School districts should also review sample copies of publishers' textbook series. Textbook companies employ curriculum experts who aid in the planning, writing, and final publication of textbooks. However, textbooks may not reflect current research in teaching and learning processes. It is important, then, to examine textbooks as part of any literature review; a review of two or three major textbook series should provide an overview of what is available for instruction in the field. This review must then be compared to the curriculum guide review and other pieces of current research in teaching and learning theory to get a sense of how close instruction is or is not coming to theory.

An additional source of information is professional organizations. These organizations will be able to provide readings, studies and journals that will overview what a quality program should include. Specifically, the National Council for the Social Studies and the Rhode Island Social Studies Association are good sources of information. The Association for Curriculum and Supervision Development in Alexandria, Virginia, will be able to provide sources and contacts for more information.

In addition, a district can run its own computer data base search of the literature. Through Bibliographic Retrieval Services (BRS), Latham, New York, and other data base sources, a user can access major data bases such as ERIC, dissertation abstracts, sociological abstracts, psychological abstracts, government files and more. Only districts that expect to make extensive use of computer data base searches should consider acquiring the necessary equipment. However, if the commitment is made, the district will find that having access to the professional literature through a simple telephone call is an enormous advantage. One can read abstracts of studies on a specific topic, and then read the full text of the document at a curriculum library such as Rhode Island College, which has the complete ERIC file on microfiche. Copies of documents are relatively inexpensive to order through the mail; allow up to one month for delivery.

A district may choose to hire a consultant -- an outside curriculum expert perhaps from one of the local colleges or universities -- to conduct the literature review and make recommendations. Although this is the easiest way for a district to conduct a literature review, it is also the most expensive.

In the first chapter of this report, a separate RISS 1986-87 committee provides recommendations as to what content and processes should be included in a K-12 social studies program. The committee formulated these recommendations after conducting a literature review. As part of their review the committee selected several current articles on scope and sequence for inclusion in this report (Appendices A and B). Hopefully, this work will serve to provide background necessary to speed this task as your district undertakes a review of the literature.

Whatever method the district chooses, the purpose of the review is to determine what a model curriculum design should look like. This includes what content and processes or skills should be taught, to what degree and at which grade levels. Having concluded this phase, the evaluator is ready to go on to phase two.

Phase Two

Having determined what should be taught through Phase One, the local curriculum needs to be reviewed in light of that information.

First, the existing written curriculum should be systematically reviewed and compared with the ideal curriculum as described at the end of Phase One. This review should be conducted by grade level for grades 1 through 8 and by individual course for the high school grades. These subdivisions are only recommended for ease; another method of review may seem more appropriate and can be followed.

As part of the review process, the district should identify and resolve scope and sequence issues through faculty discussion. For example, the Wisconsin Social Studies Guide recommends that districts determine whether teachers responsible for the same grade or course share a common view of their efforts. Another issue rests with whether expectations across grade levels and courses are consistent from teacher to teacher and grade to grade. These "inputs" are critical to the evaluation process and the overall effectiveness of the educational program.

This first step will generate a list of recommendations that include content and processes or skills that should be taught but are not included in the written curriculum. Since the evaluator does not have enough information yet to act on these recommendations, changes should be made at a later point in the curriculum evaluation.

Step two requires a systematic review of state mandates in this curriculum area. Local policies should also be reviewed to see if any mandates exist. Faculty consistency and views with respect to the curriculum should be examined, and finally, parents' ideas about what should be taught in school may also be considered. These are all "inputs" to the curriculum design question.

Having concluded Phases One and Two, the evaluator should have the following information:

1. A list of topics and skills at specific grade levels or whole courses of study that are currently excluded from the existing curriculum but should be incorporated into it.
2. A list of state and/or [illegible] program requirements that must be included in the curriculum.

Question 2: To what extent is the present curriculum being implemented?

This is one of the most difficult questions to answer but also among the most important. The answers to Question 1 are meaningless without a firm grasp as to what is actually being taught in the classroom and to what extent. This problem of determining what is actually being taught is exacerbated by different teacher effects in the same school as well as principal/teacher effects across schools.

An assumption made in this section is that there is probably no way to answer this question with certainty. While that may be discomforting, the goal should not be to know precisely what every teacher is doing every minute of every day. Schools are simply not set up for this level of supervision. Rather, the goal should be to selectively survey teachers on the major components of the existing curriculum.

The methodology employed to answer this question is not complex. A simple survey of faculty will provide relevant information. A model survey developed for a Pre-First Grade Program by Dr. Charles Mojkowski is included at the end of this chapter as an example. The survey should be filled out anonymously to assure reliable information. First, the survey asks the degree to which a particular curriculum component is being implemented. The survey asks two additional questions to determine the reasons why any particular curriculum component is or is not being implemented.

By analyzing the levels of difficulty teachers experience in implementing the curriculum, evaluators will begin to see which components are under- or over-emphasized. Additional interviews will determine the specific reasons. For example, teaching materials may not exist for a particular component. Students may not have reached the appropriate reading level. The teacher may lack specific skills or training to teach a topic. The third survey question asks why certain curriculum components are under- or over-emphasized. Teachers allocate class time according to their perceptions of a topic's importance; the more important a curriculum component, the more teaching time they will spend, and vise versa. Moreover, if a teacher lacks skills in an area, she will most likely allocate less time to it. The more prepared and comfortable, the more time she will spend. Since allocated class time is an important and reliable predictor of student achievement, this issue becomes critical to an evaluation of curriculum and schooling.

Listed below are some possible interpretations of survey results:

Degree of Implementation	Level of Difficulty	Essentiality	Interpretation
High	Low	High/Moderate	If review of literature indicates this component is important, no problem.
Low	Low	Moderate/Low	If review of literature indicates this component is not important, no problem. If review indicates it is important, teacher response of low essentiality requires inservice and close supervision.
Low	Low	High	If literature review indicates component is important, provide faculty training since teachers are already motivated.
High	Low	Low	If literature review indicates component is important, check student mastery (next section) since low essentiality score may indicate little time is being allocated. If literature review indicates component is unimportant, leave alone or provide direction to spend little time on it.

Degree of Implementation	Level of Difficulty	Essentiality	Interpretation
High	Low	High	If literature review indicates component is unimportant, instructional time is being wasted.

The above listing provides a few of the many possible interpretations of this survey. It is critical to note how important the answers to Curriculum Evaluation Question 1 are to interpreting this survey. Whether or not a curriculum component is viewed by experts as worthy of valuable instructional time is the key element in interpreting the faculty responses and providing direction. Finally, a faculty review committee should check survey responses for overall reliability and discuss possible solutions and program changes.

Question 3: To what extent are the students mastering the program objectives?

This is potentially the most expensive question to answer and, at best, will yield limited findings. The Committee believes that it is simply impossible to test enough students on enough learning objectives to know with certainty whether the curriculum (in all areas) is actually being mastered. If a district attempted testing on this scale, little time for actual instruction would remain. And since the Rhode Island Basic Education Plan calls for program evaluation in all subject areas, a method of sampling student mastery must be found.

It is recommended that grade level exit tests be developed for the social studies. This might be expanded to semester exams at the high school level. These tests would take about an hour to administer and would determine student mastery of a sample of learning objectives covered that year. It would make sense to "key" test items to those objectives that (1) were found to be important through the literature review and (2) were rated as moderate/high on the faculty survey question regarding degree of implementation of the objective. Of course, any number of other rationales could be constructed for including test items. For example, a district might test mastery of an objective even though the teachers felt that the degree of implementation was low. If a district finds that student mastery is acceptable, it would not want to increase instructional time in this area.

The district must establish a testing schedule and rationale. A testing schedule places limitations on the number of objectives that can be tested and the frequency of re-testing. In one district that has set up a testing schedule for all subject areas, it was determined that the best that could be accomplished (based on yearly tests K-8 and semester exams 9-12) is re-testing of objectives every two or three years. This district is presently re-examining the testing schedule for the core subject areas because re-testing every three years is unacceptable from a validity point of view. In this district, students may be tested more frequently in reading, language arts, mathematics, social studies and science and much less frequently in all other areas (perhaps every four or five years). While this situation is not ideal, it is driven by practical reality.

Along with a schedule, a testing rationale must be established. Will the district be satisfied with tests that sample learning objectives? If so, how will those objectives be selected? If the district wants all objectives tested, then a decision has to be made as to which subject areas will not be tested in any year. There are no good answers to these questions. A district testing schedule may be determined by its finances.

Implicit in the above discussion is that these tests are criterion-referenced tests. Criterion-referenced tests are tests that measure a student's knowledge of specific learning objectives that were taught at a particular school in a particular class. Because the learning objectives very often differ from district to district, school to school and even teacher to teacher (see discussion of evaluation question 2). These tests will be locally developed or at least keyed to what was locally taught.

Volumes have been written on proper test construction. Essentially, a district must contend with two critical problems: test validity and test reliability. A test is valid when it actually measures what it is supposed to measure. For example, if the goal is to measure critical thinking skills, then the teacher must make sure that the test is designed to measure those skills. Multiple choice tests often fail in this area unless a great deal of effort goes into their construction. Criterion-referenced tests must also be reliable. If a student took the test a second time, would the results be approximately the same? While there are many other validity and reliability issues, these are among the most critical to ensuring that the information attained at the end of the testing process is valuable.

Because these tests are difficult to construct properly, they will be costly. Expertise is required to construct tests and interpret their results. The costs incurred for faculty to write test items, or for a consultant to write them and help in the analysis and interpretation of results can be prohibitive. For the most part, these tests cannot be purchased commercially. Only when a district purchases a publisher's text book program will criterion-referenced tests be available, though this is not always the case. Even if they are available, the district may teach objectives not included in the textbook series, and the test items must be constructed locally.

It is strongly recommended that districts enter into collaboratives where they can share the job -- and costs -- of test construction with other school districts. Districts may agree to keep a test item bank to which teachers from all districts would contribute. A faculty committee from all the districts would be formed to systematically review the items for quality. The retained items would be entered into a word processing system that all districts could access and use. A local district can simply edit the item bank and create tests that fit their needs. The districts may collectively purchase computer software that scans and scores these tests quickly and efficiently. More important, the computer can generate statistics that will help the district determine a test's validity and reliability. The total cost for hardware and software for such a system is around $20,000.00, but the expense can be shared by three or four districts. If any one district owns IBM computer equipment, the cost can be brought down even further to around $15,000.00.

The extent to which students are mastering program objectives is a difficult question to answer, and it is a question that is complicated by time and cost. If districts enter into collaboratives, however, useful and timely information can be obtained to provide direction in the curriculum evaluation process.

Question 4: In summative terms, how good is the program?

This last question is the easiest to answer because it is based on information gleaned from questions 1, 2, and 3. Because the answers to the first three questions are continually changing as they interact with each other, there is no single answer to the final question. In fact, every time information from the first three questions is analyzed and a decision is made about the program, question 4 is being answered.

Question 4 asks for an analysis of what happens as conclusions are drawn and changes are implemented in a district's curriculum. A feedback loop must be established to the faculty and program developers; when a program component is summatively determined to be in need of improvement -- changes should be made. A district must first decide what should happen, and who should be responsible for ensuring that strategies for improvement are carried out.

It is recommended that a five year cycle be developed such that Questions 1, 2, and 3 are researched over a two to three year period. The remaining two or three years should be spent implementing those findings that came directly from the major evaluation effort. A district might decide to continue testing over the latter years of the cycle in order to build a data base for the next cycle. But the focus of the last years of the cycle must be on carrying out improvement practices and strategies.

As a check with outside reality, test items on national standardized test instruments should be analyzed to understand to what degree the local program is addressing social studies knowledge, skills, and attitudes deemed to be important. In some sense this is a check that the district made careful selections as to what to teach based on the review of the literature. Because there is still a wide-ranging national debate on what should be taught in social studies, some type of outside check will be valuable in keeping the district on track with informed choices.

To conclude, Question 4 is actually answered continually, as the program evaluation team researches Questions 1, 2, and 3. Improvement strategies should be implemented as a result of any conclusions drawn by the evaluation team; a summative evaluation that a program is "good" or "in need of improvement" is insufficient.

SUMMARY

Program evaluation is difficult and expensive. The procedures outlined here will require a school district to commit itself to an ongoing, systematic process of evaluation. Yet the Committee strongly believes that in adhering to this process, a district involves itself in meaningful curriculum development. Through this process, the district conducts a self analysis and weighs the effectiveness of its program against an ideal. The probability of the evaluation having a real impact is greatly enhanced by involving faculty directly in the evaluation process. Program evaluation is a critical component that is often missing in schools today. As long as districts are willing to enter into collaboratives to share the work load, the practical approach to the evaluation process outlined in this chapter will lead to improved instruction.

[Please note the following page, which shows an example of the Program Implementation Checklist.]

PROVIDENCE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
PRE-FIRST GRADE PROGRAM

PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION CHECKLIST

INSTRUCTIONS: The key components of the pre-first grade program are listed below. For each component, indicate first the degree to which it is present in your implementation of the program. Next, estimate how difficult it is for you to implement each component. Finally, indicate how essential you believe each component is to the realization of the goals and objectives of the program.

	DEGREE OF IMPLEMENTATION					LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY					ESSENTIALITY				
	NONE				TOTAL	LOW				HIGH	LOW				HIGH
COMPONENT	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Classroom is organized into Learning Centers.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Children are made aware of the daily agenda.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Small heterogeneous peer groups are formed to work in Learning Centers.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
The monthly thematic units are used in instruction.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Each child is provided with decision-making opportunities each day.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Daily lessons are guided in part by the childrens' interests.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Time is provided daily to reflect on and record classroom events.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Folders are maintained of children's daily work.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Records are maintained of learning opportunities provided to each child.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
The E.L.F. Program is incorporated in the overall Pre-First Program.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
An atmosphere of cooperation is maintained in the classroom.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Reading is modeled daily.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

CHAPTER THREE

INTEGRATING SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS INTO A LITERACY BASED K-3 CURRICULUM

BY: James Betres and Anne K. Petry

WITH: Introduction by John C. Pitman

INTRODUCTION

Achievement of literacy is the cornerstone of student success in schools. Students who develop a solid foundation in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and mathematics during the primary grades have a greater chance of meeting with academic success later on. These basic literacy skills are essential for one to fully participate in today's society and to adapt to an ever changing world.

While students who do well in school achieve literacy at an early age, illiteracy is common among those individuals who fall behind in classes and eventually drop out. Therefore, the Rhode Island Department of Education believes the primary objective of early elementary education should be the development of literacy skills. Key concepts from other curricular or content areas should serve as vehicles in teaching these skills.

The Rhode Island Literacy and Dropout Prevention Act of 1987 now requires that the K-3 curriculum focus instruction for all students on literacy: reading, writing, speaking, listening, and mathematics. Instruction in other content areas will be geared to helping students achieve the outcomes in literacy which will be specified by the commissioner of elementary and secondary education. This act has expanded the role and purposes of the K-3 Student Literacy Project, which operated during the 1986-87 school year, and elevated the project to a division level within the Rhode Island Department of Education.

The following concept paper, written by Dr. James Betres and Dr. Anne Petry in the fall of 1987, was developed for the K-3 Student Literacy Project staff. The ideas presented are of ever greater importance now given the passage of the Rhode Island Literacy and Dropout Prevention Act of 1987. Clearly, the need to find ways to integrate the content subjects with the development of literacy outcomes will be a major priority for the coming year.

RECOMMENDATION FOR A K-3 SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Status of Social Studies: Rhode Island

Research done in the late seventies and early eighties indicates that in almost all areas of investigation, Rhode Island social studies programs are comparable to their counterparts throughout the country. In Rhode Island, teachers from various school systems are often surprised at the degree of uniformity of programs among districts even though this was not the result of a state-wide curriculum effort.

Elements of uniformity include:

1. Use of an expanding environments approach.
2. Low student interest and achievement.
3. Little evidence of the continuation of the "new" social studies programs of the 1960's and 1970's.
4. Extensive support for the goal of citizenship education as the primary aim of social studies education.
5. Extensive use of a basal text as the principal source of content selection and sequence.
6. Minimal evidence of professional pride in the present social studies program.

Keys to Understanding and Modifying Rhode Island Social Studies Programs for Grades K-3

Any efforts at improving present social studies programs must recognize that replacement of an expanding environments design is extremely unlikely regardless of student program practices. Additionally, efforts at improving social studies programs in the elementary grades must recognize the unique nature of primary grade social studies programs:

- First, many early childhood educators label their efforts in this area as "social education" rather than social studies education. Often basal texts are not employed on an ongoing basis for social studies education. Instead, content and activities are more whole-child oriented and may change from year to year as different children enter the program. Emphasis on process rather than content typify such programming.

- Second, starting about second grade and definitely by third grade, most Rhode Island social studies programs become text-oriented. A cursory review of the best selling series indicates an expanding environments design used in all of the series.

While the social studies curriculum in the early primary years (K-1) may or may not use a text, it generally focuses on the topics of self, family, school, and community. While these topics are the beginnings of the traditional expanding environments design, there is little evidence that they are coordinated with the social studies programs of the teachers in grades 2-3-4 and vice-versa. However, if K-1 teachers adopted a text series used in the later grades, scope and sequence problems would not necessarily be solved.

Instead of radically restructuring present programs and practices, it is recommended that a two-step procedure be followed to redirect present programs. First, teachers and administrators must identify those portions of their present social studies program that are most effective and are clearly linked to helping children move toward becoming effective members of a democratic society.

Second, these select experiences should be analyzed by the staff and integrated with the core concepts and skills recommended in this proposal. A number of powerful organizing concepts and skills that are treated, reinforced and extended across grade levels will go far not only to improve student achievement but, equally important, to draw staff together around an identifiable and manageable social studies program.

The state of Rhode Island provides a special, unique opportunity for the expanding environments curriculum design to be used in a pedagogically sound program. Specifically, the size of the state, its rich history, and the diversity of its people provide the social studies educator with myriad possibilities for social studies programming for young children. Where else are neighborhoods stronger, ethnic groups more evident, and both the energy and the problems of pluralism of greater import than here? Be it seeing the Governor or a 300 year old home, where else are politics and history physically closer to a child? Whether it is the bay and beaches, the river towns, or hills, where else is the geographical mix in a child's world any richer than here? This rich cultural and historical melange, along with the proposed core of concepts and skills and a functional text can better serve the developmental capabilities of young children and should be the basis for redirecting our programs.

To summarize, in order to better provide for the developmental needs of young children, the K-3 social studies program should be redirected as follows:

First: Identify current successful program units and activities that are clearly and directly linked to the primary goal of social studies education (i.e., citizenship education). Emphasis should be on depth rather than breadth of content and skill development, and should be extended within and across grades.

Second: The core of the K-3 social studies program should be a series of recurring concepts and skills that provide the child with a framework that ties together all of the social studies experiences for the four years. This content also programmatically connects teachers across grade levels.

Third: While texts will frequently provide a basis for lessons, far more material must be drawn from the immediate Rhode Island environment. Specifically, the expanding environments curriculum can only be an optimal, child-centered program if the topics for each grade -- family, neighborhood, cities, or communities -- are designed from carefully selected data and activities from the child's immediate physical environment.

The proposed organizer on the preceding pages contains five major elements.

Element I: Thematic Orientation provides the professional staff with the general focus for each academic year. The orientation recommended was developed by the National Council for the Social Studies and is closely aligned to the expanding environments approach used in almost all Social Studies Texts Series.

Elements II and III: Key Recurring Concepts and Key Recurring Skills are the learning core of the program. This limited set of concepts and skills are to be taught each year using the thematic orientation of that year as a social studies learning context. Planning at the local level is especially critical since each school and school system will design a program attending to the special characteristics of their children, their schools, families, neighborhoods, and communities (see Discussion of Concepts and Skills of a Primary Social Studies Program).

Element IV: Exemplary Introductory Units models ways to develop introductory units for each of the key concepts. The concept of learning is introduced in the Kindergarten with a focus on self-learning in a social setting. In Grade 1, the concept is again introduced and extended to learning with friends and in family and school settings. In Grade 2, the concept of learning could be reinforced with data from the children's environment to teach how basic needs are met in their particular neighborhoods. In Grade 3, the concept of learning is expanded to the children's community. Here, the growing developmental capabilities of children with regard to spatial relations is combined with the study of the larger social unit of communities.

Element V: Extending Units are those units identified by the staff as successful practices that are closely related to the promotion of citizenship education among children. Such units frequently draw heavily from texts and other traditional sources; children will be expected to extend and apply key concepts and skills learned in the introductory units to the typical text data drawn from outside most children's immediate and personal experiences. Families and friends in other cultures, holidays in other countries, and similarities and differences among communities are samples of the more traditional topics that would be used as extending rather than introductory units for children. Similarly, the use of the recurring concepts and skills in these extending units (e.g., learning from friends in other parts of Rhode Island) enables children to better integrate their "social study" over the entire program; thus, reinforcement and extension are optimized.

ORGANIZER FOR RHODE ISLAND
K-3 SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS

I	II	III	IV	V
Thematic Orientation (NCSS)	Key Recurring Concepts K-3	Key Recurring Skills K-3	Exemplary Introductory units developed using local data and sources - Key Concept	Possible Extending Units using text, etc.
Kindergarten - Awareness of self in a social setting	Change Interdependence Learning Diversity Scarcity Power Emerging Concepts of Time and Space	Cognitive - Observing/Gathering Information - Organizing Informantion - Communicating - Summarizing/Generalizing - Making Decisions Social - Relating to Others/Caring - Sharing/Helping - Cooperating	K - Key Concepts: Learning Context: Self Data Source: Children's Senses A. Local media (TV shows & radio) B. Any kitchen - sights & smells	Helping Holidays Rules Choices
Grade 1 - The individual in primary social groups: understanding school and family life			How do I learn things? 1 - Key Concept: Learning Context: Primary Social Groups Data Source: Friends, games we play and songs we sing. How do I learn things from my friends? How do they learn things from me? What do they expect from me?	Needs & Wants Groups School Life Holidays Other Families Other Cultures

I	II	III	IV	V
Grade 2 - Meeting basic needs in nearby social groups: The neighborhood	Continuation of K-1 concepts, with increasing emphasis on developing responsibility: 1. For self (self discipline) 2. For others (setting a good example, caring, helping, etc. 3. For the environment (conservation of non-renewable resources, protection of plant and animal life)		2 - Key Concept: Learning Context: Neighborhood Data Source: People in Neighborhood What do I learn from people who work in my neighborhood? What can I learn when I go to the store? What can I learn when I look at buildings in my neighborhood?	Transportation Different Neighborhoods Working, playing and visiting in other neighborhoods
Grade 3 - Sharing earthspace with others: The community			3 - Key Concept: Learning Context: Community Data Sources: Oral history, newspapers, aerial photographs. What can I learn from the location of things? What can I learn from people who used to live in my neighborhood? What can I learn from people who share my community with me?	- Types of Communities - Changes in Communities - Similarities Differences Communities - Goods and Services - Resources

DISCUSSION OF CONCEPTS AND SKILLS TO BE INCLUDED IN A PRIMARY SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Social studies in the primary grades should be viewed as products (concepts) and processes (ways of learning). The content of the social studies curriculum should be drawn from the child himself and the world around him. Social studies knowledge becomes a tool which children acquire and use to solve personal and social problems and learning problems in other contexts.

The teacher who focuses on the following processes and concepts can enhance children's ability to reason and can enrich children's experience of their environment.

Appropriate Social Studies Concepts for Primary Grades

1. Change

Change permeates present instructional practices and materials. This concept best prepares children to understand themselves, their environment, and their futures. A democracy can thrive when its citizens are committed to positive change and continually work to improve the society.

2. Interdependence

Interdependence, like change, permeates present practices. As children begin to make reciprocal arrangements and learn to share, they engage in such complex prosocial actions as empathy and perhaps altruism. Interdependence is critical to the social development of a member of a democratic society.

3. Learning

Each of the National Council for the Social Studies themes emphasizes the developmental processes affecting children. Awareness, understanding, meeting, and sharing represent powerful interactions between a child and his or her environment. In order to better understand and value the power of the mind and the forces acting upon it, learning is selected as one of the key organizers for the entire program. Equally important is the fact that a democracy, in order to be self-renewing and to achieve its potential, requires an intellectually competent citizenry.

4. Diversity

America derives much of its strength from the diversity of its people. The dynamic tension generated by pluralism is an extremely complex phenomenon to understand, and yet, because it provides much of the energy for our social and political system, the basis for understanding diversity must begin as early as possible.

5. Scarcity

All citizens need to recognize and come to grips with the never ending struggle between human wants and limited resources; this struggle is central to many of the decisions we make in our families, communities, and as members of a democratic society.

6. Power

A major developmental task between ages 2 and 6 is to gain the power to initiate language and to initiate energetic physical motion. Young children use social play to practice powerful adult roles they look forward to exercising. After the age of 6 or 7, a child gains a sense of his own competence and effectiveness which is crucial to personality development (Erickson). Giving children the responsibility of accomplishing school tasks (i.e., industry), is a means of "empowering" them. Success in learning imparts confidence. While the concept of "power" is abstract and difficult and cannot be taught directly, it is central to this developmental level, and must be part of the child's milieu. The concept of control or power is learned through experience; children can make and control some changes, persuade peers, make decisions, and get what they want as often as is reasonable by using socially acceptable means. Collaborative projects illustrate the "power" of group effort. Children must understand which elements of their lives they can control, (and there must be some) and which decisions belong to adults. Personal control and responsibility are the primary subconcepts of power.

7. Emerging Concepts of Time and Space

Young children are far too frequently expected to "cover" temporal and spatial textbook content that is either developmentally inappropriate or simply irrelevant to their present needs. Rhode Island educators must look at their social studies texts and seriously question the selected content and activities related to these two concepts. "Oral" and "living" history approaches must be used with young children. The immediate, physical evidence of history, such as a local store, church, historic marker, or cemetery in the community provide an excellent data base for developing emerging concepts of time and space with young children.

No one really knows how and when children develop an understanding about time, but we do know that it is a difficult concept for them to learn. Primary school children should be able to order events chronologically, as well as recognize that events happen in succession. Children should also learn that events are separated by measured units of "time" such as days and hours. In addition, concepts such as duration, permanence, and simultaneity, as well as relational ideas such as sooner and later, before and after, then and now, should be taught.

Spatial understanding probably precedes and influences the understanding of time. A child's sense of self is grounded in "myself, in this space, and in this time." To date, there is no definitive research that offers teaching guidelines relative to children's spatial abilities. There are probably developmental differences in spatial perspective abilities, but many 2nd and 3rd grade teachers have discovered that some children are eager to draw rough maps, (Staltmen) and many are able to recreate rooms by using models. Some children can relate symbols on a map to what they represent in reality.

Drawing activities emphasize concepts of location, representation, symbolization, perspective, and scale in the child's classroom, home and neighborhood; movement activities reinforce understanding of location, directionality, relative position, distance, and region. Use of directional and "position" vocabulary is helpful. Mapping skills may be taught to children at an early age.

Seefeldt says: "The child's concept of space and directionality is developed from direct, active experiences moving through space. These initial concepts of space provide the basis for subsequent formation of representational space." The sequence is, as always, from concrete to abstract.

Appropriate Social Studies Skills for Primary Grades

Five intellectual processes or learning skills which have proven particularly appropriate for primary grade children are as follows:

1. Observing/Gathering Information

Children are often very cursory in their observations, just as they are still impulsive in their thinking. The ultimate goal is to make them more reflective thinkers, and the foundation is to teach them to be careful, accurate observers. Teachers can help children focus their observations by asking them to notice details in pictures, listen to interactions, and record details of events. The teacher's role is to supply -- and limit -- materials or events, and to question or comment in such a way that children practice comparing and contrasting, identifying similarities and differences, and sensing relationships. Careful observation is a necessary "readiness" skill to learn to read, to manipulate numerals, to learn about rules in games, and to peacefully interact with others. Its importance cannot be overstated. Even the youngest children can be taught to identify sources of information and to conduct interviews or surveys which are age-appropriate. Teachers can help children learn to pose questions, identify problems, and develop personal interests.

2. Organizing Information

A classroom for young children should be full of interesting things, sets of artifacts from the "real world," books, photographs, and recordings. The children, too, are encouraged to collect objects, pictures, articles, and stories.

Children can help categorize, label, and decide how to display and store their own materials. Children develop concept formation skills when they make decisions about "which things go together" and "what is the title of the group of things." Allowing children to organize their study materials can be a useful diagnostic strategy; the teacher will learn how children are reasoning, what they know about a topic, and how they view the information as a whole. (Concept formation is different from concept attainment, which involves children learning teacher made categories and labels.)

Children at this age are eager to solve "real" problems, accomplish significant tasks, and make helpful contributions to the class. Children can categorize, label, store and display learning materials; the classroom will stay clean and orderly and the children will feel good about their contributions to the entire classroom community. As children organize information, they make cognitive decisions; oral language skills are developed as children explain the reasons behind those decisions in class discussions.

3. Communicating or Recording

Children in the primary grades can describe and make records of what they learn in the social studies in a number of ways. Children can draw, make clay models, keep simple tallies or other records, collect photographs, make lists, displays, or maps, describe experiences orally or in writing, make tape recordings, or construct models. By engaging in these activities, young children -- unable to read and write -- learn to be accurate, create memory aids to which they may refer later, and learn to share their work with others.

4. Generalizing

Young children learn concepts by examining many cases or examples of the concept while their teachers direct them to focus on the essential attributes of the concept. Similarly they learn to generalize by gaining experience in relating two or more concepts. For example, having learned "neighborhood" and "change," children can consider the generalization "their are many causes of change in a neighborhood." Having learned the concepts "group" and "decision," they are ready to understand that "groups can make decisions." Experience with generalizing helps children understand their social environment. Role playing, reading, study of problems and events all provide such experience, but direct and carefully teaching of appropriate concepts is the best cognitive foundation for leading children to understand generalizations and to form their own.

The processes of skills reviewed above are those presented by Ellis (p. 102), Seefeldt, and other researchers and practitioners in the social studies field. Ellis says that "problem solvers need to learn how to ask good questions, keep an open mind, make guesses and, play hunches, give reasons, make decisions and make corrections."

5. Making Decisions

As with other cognitive skills, children gain proficiency in decision-making over time; they need to be given frequent and systematic opportunities to make their own decisions. Children make decisions as they choose sources of information, formulate questions, gather and classify information. Teachers should enable children to choose their own project partners, help decide classroom procedures and rules, and make independent choices.

One way to provide children with decision-making practice is to tell open-ended stories; children must choose between conflicting values to solve the story's dilemma. The early work by Fannie and George Shaftel and the newer work by Schuncke and Krogh, *Helping Children Choose*, (1983) are excellent source books that encourage role-playing and discussion activities for primary school children.

Social Processes

1. Caring/Empathizing

According to White, (1973) children are able to express a range of emotions from affection to hostility by the time they reach six years of age. In order to feel empathy for another child or adult, children must be able to understand and take on the perspectives of others. Robert Selman's, (1984) research on perspective-taking indicates four developmental levels of awareness that children and young adults move through as they mature. The levels are not intended to categorize or label people; instead, they offer a system to help us understand behavior. In a variety of contexts, people of all ages behave in ways that are more appropriate at different developmental levels and ages. Selman's Levels 0 and 1 generally describe early childhood behaviors. Level 2 describes mid-childhood, Level 3 is pre-adolescent, and 4 is adolescent. The boundaries between all of these levels are flexible and are dependent on a variety of contexts and other social factors.

Level 0: failure to clearly differentiate between self and others and opposing social perspectives.

Level 1: the realization that others' thoughts, feelings, and intentions are distinct from self.

Level 2: the realization that another person can reflect and consider facts and situations; the attitudes and feelings of others are distinct from the attitudes and feelings of the self.

Level 3: the psychological points of view belonging to both self and other can be seen mutually and simultaneously.

Level 4: the integrated social viewpoint that transcends individual perspectives and involves a mutual understanding of deeper psychic processes within and between people.

2. Sharing/Helping

The developing child must first establish his or her own autonomy and individuality BEFORE the child can give up some of his individuality to either conform to behaviors expected by a group, or to see and fulfill another's needs, (Seefeldt, 1984).

3. Cooperating

Children develop cooperative behaviors as they mature. Cooperating in a democracy does not mean one must submerge his individuality for the good of the group. It means that "individuals are integrating their desire to belong to the group, with their desire to be themselves" (Seefeldt, 1984). The same developmental factors that influence sharing, influence children's ability to cooperate.

4. Leading/Following

Burton White's, (1973) research identified the abilities to lead and to follow among the constellation of characteristics of "competent six-year-olds." Children practice leading and following under different circumstances as they assert personal power and cooperate with others in social situations.

5. Being Fair

In order for a child to get along well with others, she must have a positive self image; when she sees herself as being a valuable and capable individual, she will see others in the same light. Children between 5 and 8 will usually be on one of the following "levels" of "positive justice" or fairness:

Level 1-A: Commitment to strict equality when making choices.

Level 2-A: Commitment to reciprocity.

Level 2-B: Moral relativity: belief that different persons can have equally valid justifications for choices. (Damon, 1977)

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CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIAL STUDIES AND SPECIAL POPULATIONS

BY: Joan A. Sousa and Joyce Stevos

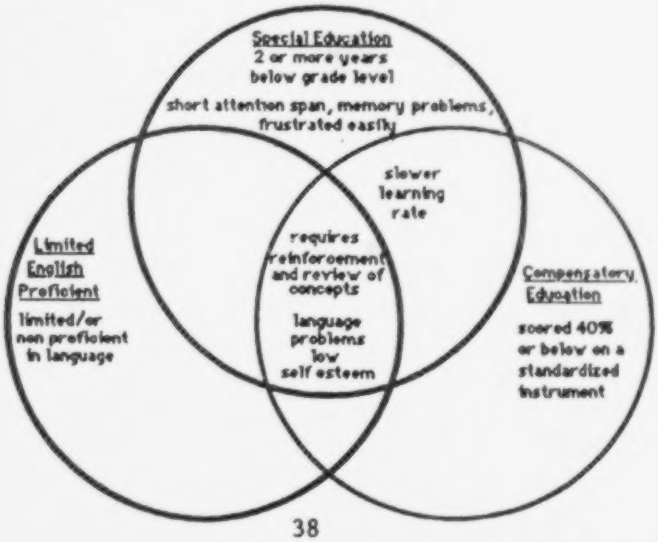
WITH: Mary Bolton, Judith Edsal, Donald Leonard, Michael McGee, Charles Mello, and Donna Jean Freeman Wosencraft.

PHILOSOPHY

Education should provide all citizens in a democracy with the necessary tools to reach their intellectual, creative and ethical potential. The social studies curriculum area should teach students about ways to energize, mobilize, and transform society. This discipline should combine content and experience through exploration and expression. In order to provide meaningful experiences for students in all grades, teachers must recognize the unique needs, interests, and readiness of all pupils. All students must be encouraged to become individuals while they develop responsibility for themselves and society.

CATEGORIES OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTION

Some of the characteristics of compensatory education, special education and, limited English proficient students are diagrammed below:



Students in compensatory education, special education and limited English proficient programs benefit from a variety of teaching strategies to meet their unique needs. A multi-sensory teaching approach that includes visual aids, concept grids, semantic mapping and field experiences should create an interactive environment where students gain pragmatic experience applicable to everyday life. Teaching styles should match learning styles and there should be a low teacher/student ratio in class. Tutoring, small and whole group instruction, and student-initiated learning forums should benefit students in all of these groups.

What follows is a discussion of special populations according to state and federal categories.

Compensatory Education: The goal of compensatory education programs is to provide students with extra help, extra time, and specialized materials so that they may ultimately move back or "mainstream" into the central curriculum scope and sequence. The curriculum objectives for compensatory education programs (Chapter I and Section 4) should be the same as those for the central social studies curriculum; objectives must be drawn from many levels of the central curriculum to meet the individual needs of compensatory students. In addition, the range of instructional approaches and materials must be considerably broader and more flexible than those typically used in the regular classroom.

Special Education: Special education is designed to meet the needs of students with a wide variety of disabilities including physical, mental, and emotional handicaps. The degree of disability ranges from severe -- requiring special programs, special facilities, and sometimes, special institutions -- to moderate and mildly handicapping conditions. Students with moderate or mild disabilities can still be educated in local school districts with special classes and resource rooms. In this publication, we refer to students in need of special education as those students with moderate and mildly handicapping conditions who are academically functioning one to three years behind their age-level peers in regular classes. If instruction focuses on concrete and practical applications of knowledge, these students can be expected to achieve a core of social studies objectives that will enable them to function independently in society. Special education teachers need to work closely with the regular classroom teachers to insure that their program objectives are reinforced when special education students are in regular classes. Teachers must be allotted time for discussion of teaching styles and objectives.

Limited English Proficient: The primary objective of a specially designed program for limited English proficient (LEP) students is to provide for instruction in the content areas by using various transitional bilingual education approaches. The immediate secondary objective is to teach the students English. The goal is to move the LEP student into and through the K-12 central curriculum, beginning with the grade most appropriate to his or her age and ability. If content area instruction is not provided with methods appropriate to LEP students, the student will fall behind in content area objectives and will need to be placed in a remedial program. The amount of remediation needed before the LEP student can move into the central social studies curriculum will depend on a variety of factors. Many LEP students, for example, must not only contend with language difficulties in school, but are faced with poverty and minority status as well.

Gifted and Talented: The curriculum objectives for gifted and talented students build upon the central social studies curriculum. Gifted and talented students may need less time to master the central scope and sequence objectives than regular classroom students. As a result, a student may; (1) move more quickly through the central curriculum (acceleration); (2) take advanced work beyond the central curriculum (extension); or (3) do additional higher level work to meet the objectives in the central curriculum (enrichment). The philosophy of each school district will determine the direction of the gifted and talented curriculum. A program may include enrichment for grades 3-12 and extension for those high school students who choose to take advanced placement or college courses. Periodic evaluations should determine if a student is to remain in the program.

Gifted and talented students may be motivated by intellectual curiosity; they often have the ability to work independently and absorb information quickly and easily. Gifted and talented students, then, should receive instruction that emphasizes inquiry, critical thinking skills, problem solving, writing, and study and communication skills. Exposure to the social sciences allows students to critically examine assumptions and ideologies while learning how to research primary and secondary sources. The gifted and talented curriculum can be enhanced with role playing, mock trials, debates, guest speakers, and class discussions.

SAMPLE LESSONS

We have included four sample lessons for compensatory education, special education, LEP, and gifted and talented populations. These lessons are designed to give the reader an idea about possible teaching and learning activities. They are not written in stone; lessons can be adapted to meet the needs of specific classes or individual children.

Sample Lesson: Historical Projections

Goal: Develop and Utilize Higher Order Thinking Skills.

Rationale: Brainstorming and class discussion are critical for students to become active participants in the learning process. Teacher and students should work together to formulate probing, complex questions and search for possible answers.

Grade: Middle School, 5-8.

Population: Gifted and talented.

Introductory Activity:

Sample questions of historical events:

1. What would have happened if William Lloyd Garrison had been killed in 1850?
2. What would have happened if Stephen Douglas had become President instead of Abraham Lincoln?
3. What would have happened if George Washington had refused to become the first President of the United States?
4. What would have happened if the Fifteenth Amendment had given Blacks and women the right to vote?
5. What would have happened if the United States Government had not forced large numbers of Native Americans into reservation lands?
6. What would have happened if the French had not sold the Louisiana territory to the United States?
7. What would have happened if the Spanish had controlled most of the colonization of North America as well as South America?

Prepared Format: One question is selected for individual brainstorming, small group, or whole class discussion.

Example: Question 1

Q: What would have happened if William Lloyd Garrison had been killed in 1850?

Fact	Effect
1. William Lloyd Garrison was an abolitionist.	As an outspoken abolitionist in Boston, he was able to mobilize a strong anti-slave movement.
2. William Lloyd Garrison was editor of the Liberator.	His publication became a source of information for people who protested the evils of slavery.
3. His speeches provoked violent outbursts from his audiences.	Many pro-slave people were not receptive to his position against slavery.

Possible Solutions/Outcomes:

Example:

- If he had been killed in 1850, the Civil War might have been delayed.
- Slavery might have lasted longer.

Concluding Activity:

Students write a persuasive essay that develops a specific outcome. The essay should include an opening paragraph stating a thesis; middle paragraphs stating appropriate arguments; and closing summary paragraphs.

Sample Lesson: The Public Library

Goal: Introduce children to the library.

Objectives:

- To increase children's listening ability in both structured and non-structured situations.
- To introduce the child to such concepts as emotion, seasons, quantity, quality, space, and time through storytime activities.
- To create a picture book describing materials learned through the aforementioned activities.
- To increase children's understanding of community.

Grade: Elementary

Population: Special Needs, Compensatory Education, Limited English Proficient

Introductory Activities:

1. Develop a word map for library vocabulary. Divide the words into different categories.

Example of a word map for LIBRARY:

Librarian
Fines
Books
Reference Desk
Quiet
Building
Stories
Chairs
LIBRARY
Records
Tables
Library Card
Mysteries
Shelves
Fairy Tales
Card Catalogue
Fiction
Reference Desk
Non-Fiction

2. Choose one category to develop with students.

   Example: Library Rules

   a. Brainstorm a list of library rules with students.

   b. Have students vote on each of the suggested rules.

   c. Visit the school library. Assign one group of students to observe signs of library rules and another to observe the layout of the library.

   d. Discuss rules they observe in the library with the class. Check those rules against the student-generated list of rules.

   e. Have the students make a diagram of the library. Give them different shapes of colored paper to represent the tables, chairs, bookshelves, and main desk.

   f. Relate different rules to different parts of the library.

Developing Activities:

3. Read a story to the children each day in preparation for a field trip to the local public library.

4. Show children films or filmstrips on libraries and on the care of books.

5. Pose dilemmas about library behavior or procedure to the children and ask them to suggest solutions.

   a. You find a library book that you like a lot and want to take it home to read.

   b. You want to find books about fish but don't know where to look for them.

c. While you are looking at books in the library, one of your classmates keeps walking by and tickling you. This makes you giggle.

6. Make arrangements to visit the local library with the children. Before the trip, make a wall map of the streets in the neighborhood where the library is located. Ask the children to draw pictures of houses, churches, stores, and other businesses in the area, and paste them on the wall map. Ask questions about the map so that students practice directions.

7. Take children to the local public library with the appropriate number of chaperones. Each student should wear a name tag. Remind children of the library rules before going inside.

Post Library-Trip Activities:

8. Create a library center in the classroom. Children should formulate rules for the center, and take turns acting as librarian to keep the books and magazines in order. The "librarian" may also check books out and help others find the books and magazines in which they are interested.

9. Ask the children to write their own books, complete with pictures. Students may want to write about the trip to the library, the library itself, or the job of the librarian. They may want to write their reactions to the books they have read or have had read to them. These books can be "published" in the classroom and stored in the library center.

10. Ask children to make oral presentations to the class about library books they have read.

Evaluation:

1. Read stories to the class about different places; ask children to make diagrams or maps of at least one of the places described, such as a room, a house or building, or an entire neighborhood.

2. Ask the school or local librarian to visit the library center; ask children to give a tour of the center, and to share some of their favorite stories and the storybooks they have made.

3. Visit the local library again; allow children to read books in which they are interested.

Sample Lesson: The Newspaper in Social Studies

Goal: Introduce social studies and history concepts through analysis of newspapers.

Objectives:

- To familiarize students with places in the news.
- To give students practice with geography.
- To strengthen the students' ability to determine the main idea of an objective newspaper article.

Grade: Secondary

Population: Compensatory Education

Introductory Activity:

Ask each student to clip ten newspaper stories with datelines from around the world. Number the stories; locate the datelines on a world map and on a United States map and mark each place with the corresponding number. Mount the map and stories on a large piece of construction paper and draw a line from each place to the event that happened there. In small groups, students should share the news stories which interested them the most. Ensuing class discussions could focus on current events, geography and history of the places or issues discussed in the articles.

Developing Activity:

Clip editorials or feature stories from the newspaper; cut away the headlines. Duplicate and distribute to the class. Ask students to read each story and identify the main ideas. Divide the class into small groups and ask them to write newspaper headlines for each article. The whole class should then discuss the headlines and the ways they express the main ideas of the articles. Select the best headlines that not only capture the main ideas, but that grab the reader's attention.

Evaluation:

1. Give the students five different numbered news articles and a map. Students should indicate on the map where each event happened.

2. Give students an editorial and a feature story. After each, write three messages. Students should choose the message that best expresses the main idea of the article. Another option is for students themselves to identify the main idea and explain it in writing.

3. Discuss specific current events or issues that directly affect students' lives (i.e., the seat belt law, speed limit, age limit on buying and drinking alcohol, or sex education in school, for example). Ask students to choose a point of view on one of these issues and defend it in their own editorials. These articles may be suitable for publication in a class or school newspaper.

Sample Lesson: Sausage Around the World

Goal: Students will learn how other cultures and communities meet one of their fundamental human needs. By studying a specific type of food and its preparation for consumption, students will learn how a number of different ethnic populations meet this need.

Objectives:

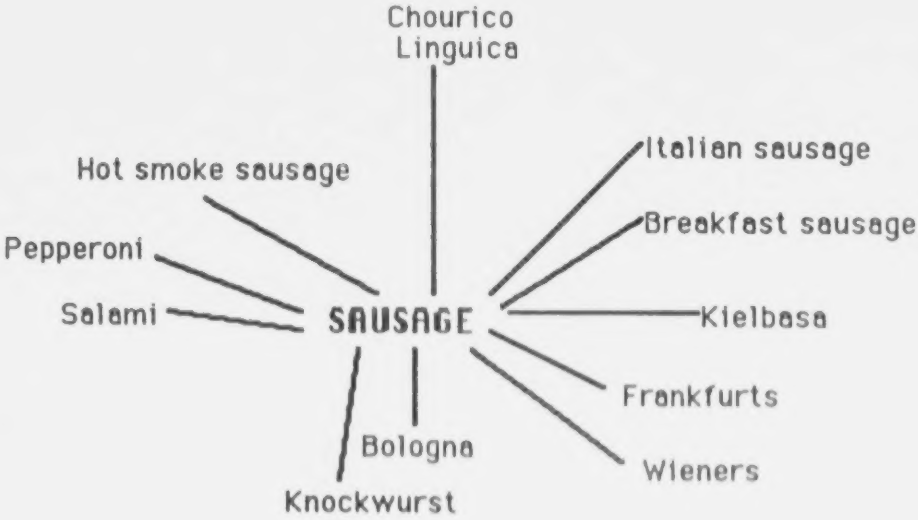
- To compare different types of sausages and their ethnic origins through class discussion and observation.
- To study sausage-making and the recipes and meals that include sausage as a main component.

Grades: Elementary

Population: Compensatory Education; Limited English Proficient; Special Needs

Introductory Activity:

1. As a class, create a word map, with "SAUSAGE" at the center. Students can brainstorm together about the different names for sausages they already know; fill in the sausage map as necessary. Discuss some of the key differences among the sausages named on the word map.



2. Discuss the ethnic origins of the different sausages on the word map and relate them to other foods with which the children are familiar. Make labels for the sausages and attach them appropriately to a world may or globe. Discuss the fact that people everywhere must produce, prepare, and consume a variety of foods in order to live.

3. Discuss how sausages can contribute to a balanced meal. Create menus for a variety of complete meals that feature different kinds of sausages. (Meals may include lasagna, eggs or omelettes and breakfast sausages, meat sauce for pasta, pizza, hot dogs, and sandwiches.) Such cooking techniques as frying, sauteing, curing and smoking may be discussed with older students.

Developing Activities:

4. Visit a local supermarket and go on a sausage hunt. Divide students into groups and have them look for sausages at the meat counter, in the deli and frozen food sections. Such information as cost, packaging, type (soft, semi-hard, hard), color and ingredients (if available) should be recorded in notebooks.

5. Discuss sausage ingredients. Explain how sausages made from the same kinds of meat can taste unique when spices are added or when different smoking, curing, or cooking techniques are used to prepare them. Discuss how different ethnic communities depend on particular spices to flavor their foods.

6. Visit a local butcher who will demonstrate sausage-making in the store. Ask the butcher to discuss sausage production from farmer to meat grinder to store shelf.

Culminating Activity:

7. Have a sausage-tasting so that students can sample the variety of sausage they've studied. Sausage dishes can be purchased or brought to school by parents. Recipes and their ethnic origins should be discussed so that students understand that many groups of people depend on sausages as part of the balanced diet.

Evaluation:

Have students complete a matching worksheet to assess their understanding of sausage varieties and their countries of origin.

Younger students may draw pictures of meals that include sausage, or of people involved in sausage production.

Older students can write essays summarizing what they learned from their trip to the grocery store or butcher.

CHAPTER FIVE

SELECTED SOCIAL STUDIES REFERENCES

Curriculum Guides:

Several states and districts have produced guides to curriculum planning in social studies or on specific related topics that can be purchased through the individual state or district departments of education. The following are useful resources:

A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction Bulletin No. 6251, Madison, WI, 1986.

Skill Development in the K-6 Social Studies Program, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction Bulletin No. 5193, Madison, WI.

A Learning Guide for Social Studies Skill Development 7-12, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction Bulletin No. 8545, Madison, WI.

(All of the above are available from the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 125 South Webster Street, P.O. Box 7841, Madison, WI 53707-7841).

Strategies for Teaching Social Studies: A Staff Development Program for Teachers in Grades K-6, Los Angeles Unified School District Publication No. EC-536 1982, Los Angeles, CA, 1982.

(The above is available from the Los Angeles Unified School District Publications Unit, 450 Grand Avenue, Room G390, Los Angeles, CA 90012).

Other Resources:

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405

(Publishes a monthly newsletter, Keeping Up, and frequent ERIC digests that describe skill development strategies).

National Council for the Social Studies, 3501 Newark Street, Washington, D.C. 20016

(Professional organization that publishes the journal *Social Education*, sponsors national conferences and regional and state organizations. For information on the Rhode Island Council for the Social Studies contact Rose Marie Cipriano at Woonsocket Junior High School, Woonsocket, RI).

APPENDIX A

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IN SEARCH OF A SCOPE AND SEQUENCE FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

Report of the National Council for the Social Studies
Task Force on Scope and Sequence
November 1, 1983

Preliminary Position Statement of the Board of Directors

REGIONAL TASK FORCE MEMBERS

Chairperson:
John Jarolimek, *Professor, College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle*

Susan Austin, *Coordinator, Project ACCESS, Citizens Education Center Northwest, Seattle*

Franklin D. Carlson, *Professor, Central Washington University, Ellensburg*

Catherine F Henderson, *Elementary School Teacher, Highline School District, Seattle*

Allen Johnston, Jr., *High School Teacher and District Social Studies Coordinator, Shoreline School District, Seattle*

Theodore Kaltsounis, *Associate Dean, College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle*

Kenneth E. Leonard, *Director, Washington State Council for Economic Education, Seattle Pacific University, Seattle*

Elizabeth O. Pearson, *Senior High School Teacher, Renton Public Schools, Renton*

Jack Rogers, *Elementary School Teacher, Shoreline School District, Seattle*

Larry Strickland, *Washington State Social Studies Supervisor, Olympia*

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The National Council for the Social Studies welcomes all comments, suggestions, and other reactions to the material in this report. Letters should be sent to:

Jamieson McKenzie
Assistant Superintendent
Princeton Regional Schools
P.O. Box 711
Princeton, New Jersey 08540

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Social Studies and the Education of Citizens

> *The collapse of Athenian democracy is a tragic and complex history. But important to its decline were demagogues whipping up emotional mob passions while respectable Athenians avoided the vulgarities of the mob, lamented the extremism of its leaders, and pursued their private lives—unmindful of Pericles' eloquent wisdom. . . .*
>
> John C. Livingston and Robert G. Thompson,
> *The Consent of the Governed,* p. 421.

POLITICAL SYSTEMS based mainly on such values as individual freedom and citizen participation historically have not enjoyed lengthy tenures. Time erodes the idealism under which they are established. Gradually private interests dominate decision making. Pressure groups and influence peddlers manipulate the system to their own selfish ends. Nonparticipation reduces opportunities for citizens to control and direct their own destinies insofar as these are affected by the political system. Is this also to be the fate of the United States of America, with its more than 200-year history of democratic government?

Citizenship means that an individual is fully franchised as a member of a political community. The rights, duties, responsibilities, and entitlements embodied in the franchise apply evenhandedly to those who have the abilities and skills needed to participate in the social and political life of the group. But what becomes of those who do not acquire such abilities and skills? Moreover, can a society that assumes responsible citizen involvement in decision making survive if members do not, will not, or cannot participate in such decision making? Who, then, is responsible for educating the young in the knowledge, abilities, skills, beliefs, and values associated with such participation?

In recent years much attention has been focused on pluralism in the American social system. But underlying the great diversity of ethnic origins, interests, goals, and beliefs, exists a layer of basic values and expectations on which there is or ought to be general concurrence. It is this set of common core values and expectations that provides standards for behavior in American life. How do young people learn those values and expectations that characterize effective citizenship, and who is responsible for transmitting them to the young?

The answer to the foregoing questions is that all agencies and institutions that work with young people share in the responsibility for citizenship education. This includes the home and family; the community; religious groups; clubs, such as scouting and 4-H; the media, especially television; and the schools. To some extent citizenship education is the central mission of the *entire* K-12 curriculum. Young citizens are taught to exercise personal hygiene, to read and write, to drive their cars safely, to be discriminating in their television viewing—all of which fall within the scope of the general school curriculum, but are hardly the sole province of social studies.

Social studies education has a specific mandate in regard to citizenship education. That mandate is to provide every American school child and adolescent with the opportunity to learn the knowledge, the abilities and skills, and the beliefs and values that are needed for competent participation in social, political, and economic life. Social studies has historically had a special responsibility for the attainment of such educational goals having to do with knowledge of the American heritage, the economic system, law and government, political processes, the history and geography of the world, world cultures, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, and the principles and ideals of American democracy. The professional practice of the social studies teacher may be defined as familiarizing children and youth with the meaning and practice of democratic government, its institutions, its historic values, and its requirements within the framework of an interdependent world of many nations whose people are oftentimes committed to competing or even conflicting ideologies and philosophical orientations.

In the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States, we read that its framers ordained and established that document "In order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity. . . ." If these goals, so eloquently stated by founders of this nation, are to endure, the Task Force believes that America must have a strong program of social studies education operating in all classrooms across the nation, every day, throughout each school year.

Definition and Goals

Definition

Social studies is a basic subject of the K-12 curriculum that (1) derives its goals from the nature of citizenship in a democratic society that is closely linked to other nations and peoples of the world; (2) draws its content primarily from history, the social sciences, and, in some respects, from the humanities and science; and (3) is taught in ways that reflect an awareness of the personal, social, and cultural experiences and developmental levels of learners.

THE FOREGOING DEFINITION embodies contemporary professional thinking regarding the nature and purposes of social studies. It clearly focuses the purposes of social studies on citizenship education. It recognizes the need to deal with social studies content from a global perspective. Although the definition identifies history, the social sciences, humanities, and science as major sources of subject matter, it does not make the study of these disciplines an end in itself. Finally, the definition invites attention to the personal dimension of social studies in calling for teaching procedures that link it to the backgrounds and developmental levels of learners.

Two of the latest curriculum publications of the National Council for the Social Studies (*Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines*, 1971, 1979; and *Essentials of the Social Studies*, 1981) do not explicitly define social studies, but the intended meaning can be understood from the rationale and statement of major goals contained in them.[1] The Task Force assumes that the goal statements in those recent publications remain valid and has incorporated ideas from them in the account that follows.

Goals

Social studies programs have a responsibility to prepare young people to identify, understand, and work to solve the problems that face our increasingly diverse nation and interdependent world. Over the past several decades, the professional consensus has been that such programs ought to include goals in the broad areas of knowledge, democratic values, and skills.[2] Programs that combine the acquisition of knowledge and skills with the application of democratic values to life through social participation present an ideal balance in social studies. It is essential that these major goals be viewed as equally important. The relationship among knowledge, values, and skills is one of mutual support.

I. Knowledge

The knowledge base provides facts, concepts, and generalizations that help students understand human affairs and the human condition. Knowledge provides a basis for values and beliefs, and it is the vehicle for the development of skills.

In spite of modern technology—or perhaps because of it—the ordinary citizen has an enormous need for knowledge that is useful in making informed decisions. Information gained in the classroom should be helpful in understanding events and conditions in the world outside of school. Information must also be linked with experiences encountered by students in their daily lives. This can be accomplished in part through social and civic observation, analysis, participation, and community service. The following are important areas of knowledge from which information goals for social studies should be selected:

History—of the United States and the world; understanding of and learning to deal with change.
Geography—physical, political, cultural, economic; world-wide relationships.
Government—theories, systems, structures, processes.
Law—civil, criminal, Constitutional, international.
Economics—theories, systems, structures, processes.
Anthropology and Sociology—cultures, social institutions, the individual, the group, the community, the society.
Psychology—the individual in intergroup and interpersonal relationships.
Humanities—the literature, art, music, dance, and drama of cultures.
Science—the effects of natural and physical science on human relationships.

II. Democratic Values and Beliefs

Democratic values and beliefs constitute a second category from which social studies goals are selected. Values constitute the standards or criteria against which individual behavior and group behavior are judged. Beliefs represent commitments to those values.

The Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution with its Bill of Rights set forth the basic principles of our democratic constitutional order. It is from these documents that our fundamental political concepts are derived. Social studies programs should not indoctrinate students to accept these ideas blindly, but rather to present knowledge about their historical roots and to show contemporary application of them. Such ideas should be analyzed as they relate to the topics studied and to current affairs. They should also be modeled by teachers in their classrooms and reflected in the school's daily operations.

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[1] The Task Force acknowledges the thoughtful and substantial contribution of several committees that have produced officially sanctioned curriculum documents for the National Council. These publications extend as far back as the mid-1950s and include *A Guide to Content in the Social Studies* (1957), *The Social Studies and the National Interest* (1962), *Social Studies in Transition: Guidelines for Change* (1965), *Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines* (1971, revised in 1979), *Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education* (1976), and *Essentials of the Social Studies* (1981).

[2] Much of the material in this section reflects the views expressed in an NCSS statement, *Essentials of the Social Studies*, approved by the Board of Directors of the Council in 1981, and the NCSS *Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines*, 1971, 1979.

Democratic processes include the practice of due process, equal protection, and civic participation, and are rooted in such values as:

- Justice
- Equality
- Responsibility
- Rule of Law
- Freedom
- Diversity
- Privacy
- International Human Rights

III. Skills

Skill development is a third category of social studies goals. A skill is defined as the ability to do something proficiently in repeated performances. Skills are processes that enable students to link knowledge with beliefs that lead to action. Skills are developed through sequential systematic instruction and practice throughout the K–12 years. Skills essential to citizen participation can be grouped in a problem-solving sequence in the following major categories:

Skills related to acquiring information
- Reading skills
- Study skills
- Reference and information-search skills
- Technical skills unique to the use of electronic devices

Skills related to organizing and using information
- Intellectual skills
- Decision-making skills

Skills related to interpersonal relationships and social participation
- Personal skills
- Group interaction skills
- Social and political participation skills

A more complete list of skills is presented on pages 260–261, a list of beliefs and values is provided on pages 258–259.

Goals for social studies are targeted on educating citizens to become informed, to develop skills necessary for citizen participation in social, civic, and political processes, and to embrace the values and beliefs that characterize citizens in a democratic society. Democracy thrives on citizen involvement and constructive social criticism; therefore, social studies should leave students with a feeling of responsibility to involve themselves in social, civic, and political affairs.

Defining a Scope and Sequence

THE TERM *scope* refers to the range of substantive content, values, skills, and/or learner experiences to be included in the social studies program. The scope may be defined narrowly as, for example, simply stating the specific subjects or skills to be taught; e.g., history, map reading, world geography. It may also be defined so comprehensively that it does not provide meaningful direction to teachers; e.g., "social studies includes all of the interpersonal and social life of children and youth." Ideally, scope should define the outer boundaries of content, values, skills, and/or learner experiences of the program.

If social studies "derives its goals from the nature of a democratic society closely linked to other nations and peoples of the world" and "draws its content primarily from history, the social sciences, and, in some respects, from the humanities and science," as is stated in the foregoing definition, topics and subjects will be included that are familiar to most parents and teachers. It is probably not possible to study close, primary human relationships without including such institutions as the home and family. Nor is it possible to learn about the development of the nation without studying its history. If one is to learn about the various cultures of the world, he or she would doubtless study their geographic characteristics, their history, their lifeways, art, literature, and music. Thus, it is not fruitful to try to define the scope of social studies in terms of wholly new and unfamiliar topics and/or subject matter. Because the topics or subjects are familiar, however, does not provide an excuse for teaching them in the same old way. The challenge to teachers is to shape those studies in ways that lead to the achievement of major social studies goals.

Teachers and curriculum planners not only have to decide what goes into the social studies program but the order in which the components are to appear—i.e., the "sequence." Presentation sequences should represent decisions based on the application of psychological principles of human development and of professional judgment. Generally speaking, topics that are spatially, temporally, or psychologically *close* to learners have traditionally appeared early in the program. Although there are many exceptions, there has been a tendency, at least in the elementary grades, to arrange topics from the near-at-hand to the far away; from the here-and-now to the past. This "expanding environment" principle has been widely used in planning social studies sequences for the elementary school since the 1930s.

The Task Force does not recommend that a social studies sequence rely *solely* on the expanding environment principle. The life space of today's children is greatly affected by modern methods of communication and transportation. Who would claim that the life space of a six-year-old is the local environment when each evening the child views television accounts of events *in progress* from anywhere in the world? Therefore, the social studies curriculum should not move sequentially from topics that are near at hand to those that are far away for the purpose of expanding the environment. The purpose of extending content outward, away from a self-centric focus, is to illustrate how people and places interact; how people of different areas depend on each other; how people are a part of interlocking networks that sustain the life of modern societies; and how people and places everywhere fit into a global human community.

Another commonly accepted rationale for arranging content in a particular sequence has been complexity. Topics perceived to be simple were placed earlier in the program than were those perceived to be more difficult. Experience has shown that it is probably not possible to develop a workable sequence based *solely* on the assumption of complexity of content. Topics *per se* are intrinsically neither simple nor complex. Their complexity is regulated by instructional variables: the concepts and relationships selected for study; the manipulation of materials used; the pace of the presentation; the depth of understanding expected. This is illustrated by the fact that first graders and Ph.D. candidates in sociology both study the family, but, of course, at different levels of analysis. Scope and Sequence Charts that show content arranged sequentially over a span of grades according to presumed difficulty may create erroneous impressions about the complexity of that content.

Most important to sequence is not the "what" but the "how" of teaching. Developmental research suggests that as children's capabilities develop, particular types of learning activities are most suitable. For example, young children learn best through concrete experience, manipulation of materials, and observation of their environment. Similarly, perspective-taking abilities can be developed in middle childhood (after around age 10) through practice. Role-playing, case studies, and stories about other people's viewpoints might be used to foster that development. In the middle school or junior high school, most students are beginning to be able to do if . . . , then . . . type thinking, making this a good time to give students practice in hypothesizing about cause and effect relationships and in considering likely consequences of alternatives in problem situations. Those abilities can be further enhanced in high school by giving secondary students opportunities to determine relationships between abstract concepts and to analyze events with consideration of multiple causes and multiple effects.

Because learning of concepts, skills, and values is cumulative, ideas should be initially introduced to young children as concrete and simple. Then they should be continually reinforced and applied—extending, expanding, and illuminating in more depth, taking advantage of the students' development. This progression is difficult to show on a chart, but it should be evident in course guides, teacher guides, and student materials. The point is that charts can show topics and initial introduction of topics. The continual expansion of learning is represented on our skill chart. A similar chart for conceptual development would picture a spiraling curriculum.

The Task Force is recommending a *holistic-interactive* approach to the selection and placement of content. That is, content at *any* grade level should be presented in ways that provide, insofar as possible, a comprehensive view of a complex whole. Topics may be regarded as part of an interacting network that often extends worldwide. People everywhere arrange themselves in social groups and engage in basic social processes. The earth is the home of human beings no matter where they live individually. Potentially, all human beings can share in the legacies derived from all cultures. Subject matter at all grade levels needs to be taught from a global perspective. This approach is *interactive* because everything relates to everything else; it is *holistic* because it casts events in their broadest social context.

Illustrative Scope and Sequence—Content

THE ILLUSTRATIVE SCOPE and sequence that follows deals with only one dimension of the social studies program; namely, the substantive content or subject matter. It is around this subject matter that skills and values (elaborated in other sections of this report) are taught. The material is presented for illustrative purposes and should not be construed as a model or ideal program. Rather, it is intended to extend the outer boundaries of existing practice, without moving so far out as to make the document unusable. Local school district curriculum developers, teachers, and lay persons should find the examples useful as a *guide* in building their own programs.

This section of the document and the two sections dealing with values and skills that follow (pp. 258–259, 260–261), rest on certain assumptions:

1. Although the scope and sequence does not presume or promote a particular method of teaching, it is assumed that critical thinking is a major outcome of social studies; and, therefore, teaching procedures at all levels—K-12—will attend to the development of this essential skill.

2. It is assumed that subject matter at all grade levels will reflect a global perspective.

3. It is assumed that all teachers—K-12—share responsibility for teaching, extending, and refining skills; this assumption rejects the idea that skills are taught in the elementary grades and are applied in the upper grades. Skills are both taught *and* applied at all grade levels.

4. It is assumed that teachers will be sensitive to the dual—and often contradictory—thrusts of social studies education in a democratic society; namely, *socialization* and *social criticism*. A degree of social cohesiveness is needed in order to allow a society to function; yet, it must not be such as to repress necessary dissension, which on occasion may be unpleasant and not socially acceptable. The challenge to education in a democratic society is to steer a course that will ensure necessary socialization of citizens and foster that spark of social criticism that has kept the lamp of liberty ignited for over two centuries.

Grade Level Examples

Kindergarten—Awareness of Self in a Social Setting

The major thrust of the kindergarten program should be to provide socialization experiences that will help children bridge their home life with the group life of the school. Learning about the physical and social environments of the school is a necessary component. Awareness of self should be developed through face-to-face relationships with others in social settings. Some structured experiences to sensitize children to a world of many people need to be included.

Grade I—The Individual in Primary Social Groups: Understanding School and Family Life

The socialization to school begun in kindergarten should be continued and extended in first grade. Children can learn the specialized roles of school personnel as an example of division of labor. Family life and structure, including variations of family structures, should be included, as well as roles of family members. Essential activities of a family in meeting basic material and psychological needs should be stressed. Variations in the way families live need to be studied; e.g., urban, rural, self-employed, both parents employed, single-parent family arrangements, various housing options, etc. Dependence of family members on each other and of the family on other families should be stressed. The need for rules and laws should be taught as a natural extension of orderly group life. Studying family life in earlier times and in other cultures provides opportunities for comparing ways of living. The globe should be introduced along with simple maps. It is important that the program include some study contact with the world beyond the neighborhood.

Grade II—Meeting Basic Needs in Nearby Social Groups: The Neighborhood

Meeting basic requirements of living in nearby social groups should be the central theme in second grade. The study of social functions such as education, production, consumption, communication, and transportation in a neighborhood context is appropriate as children develop an understanding and appreciation of people in groups. The need for rules and laws should be stressed and illustrated by examples from the everyday lives of children. Geographic concepts relating to direction and physical features of the landscape need to be included. A global perspective is important and can be sought through the study of life in another culture. Contrasting neighborhood life today with what it was in an earlier time should also be included.

Grade III—Sharing Earth-Space with Others: The Community

The community in a global setting is the focus of study at the third-grade level. The concept of community needs to be extended beyond the limits of the local neighborhood. Social functions such as production, transportation, communication, distribution, and government, including their international connections, should be stressed. The concepts of dependence and interdependence can be emphasized at the local, national, and international levels. Geographic concepts and skills should be extended to include the interactions of human beings with the environment.

Grade IV—Human Life in Varied Environments: The Region

The major emphasis in the fourth grade is the region, an area of the earth that is defined for a specific reason. Where state regulations require it, the home state may be studied as a political region. World geographic regions defined in terms of physical features, climate, agricultural production, industrial development, or economic level should be selected for study. Culture regions of the past and present may also be included. There should be some variation in the regions selected for study in order to illustrate the adaptability of human beings to varied environments. All of the basic map and globe reading skills should be included in the program.

Grade V—People of the Americas: The United States and Its Close Neighbors

The fifth-grade program focuses on the development of the United States as a nation in the Western Hemisphere, with particular emphasis on developing affective attachments to those principles on which this nation was founded and that guided its development. The diverse cultural, ethnic, and racial origins of the American people should be stressed. Attention should be directed to specific individuals who have contributed to the political, social, economic, and cultural life of the nation. The fifth-grade program should familiarize learners with the history and geography of the closest neighbor nations of the United States: Canada and Mexico.

Grade VI—People and Cultures: The Eastern Hemisphere

The focus of the sixth-grade program is on selected people and cultures of the Eastern Hemisphere. The people and cultures should be representative of (1) major geographical regions of the Eastern Hemisphere; (2) levels of economic development; (3) historical development; (4) political and value systems. The interdependence of nations should be a major theme. Instruction needs to be directed toward the understanding and appreciation of the lifeways of other people through the development of such concepts as language, technology, institutions, and belief systems.

Grade VII—A Changing World of Many Nations: A Global View

The seventh-grade program provides an opportunity to broaden the concept of humanity within a global context. The focus should be on the world as the home of many different people who strive to deal with the forces that shape their lives. The search for—and the need for—peaceful relations among nations needs to be stressed. The content is international in scope (including the Western Hemisphere), with a major emphasis on basic concepts from geography—resource distribution, spatial interaction, areal differentiation, global interdependence. The history of areas should be provided in order to illustrate changes through time. The aspirations and problems of developing nations need to be stressed. Emphasis should be given to the many interconnections that exist between places and people in the modern world. This not only includes resources necessary to support technologically based societies but cultural interconnections as well—art, literature, communication, religion, music, and sports.

Grade VIII—Building a Strong and Free Nation: The United States

The eighth-grade program is the study of the "epic of America," the development of the United States as a strong and free nation. The primary emphasis at this level should be the social history and economic development of the country, including cultural and aesthetic dimensions of the American experience. Attention should be given to the history of ordinary people doing ordinary things to include family life, work, leisure, and medical care. The unique contribution of the men and women who built the heritage we share should be stressed. The presentation must be realistic and exciting to the early adolescent. This program should stress the important role played by the United States in global affairs and the need to secure peaceful relations with all nations.

(*Note:* Most students today complete high school and, therefore, take a full year of United States history in the eleventh grade. Consequently, some school districts have adopted course options such as those listed on page 256 at the eighth grade.)

Grade IX—Systems that Make a Democratic Society Work: Law, Justice, and Economics

The ninth-grade program focuses on the concepts *social stability* and *social change* and calls for one semester of study of the law and justice systems and one semester of economics. A functional knowledge of the law and justice systems, as well as a knowledge of the economic system—along with related skills and attitudes—are critical to the practice of citizenship. These courses should address issues that capitalize on the real-life problems of students. They should also provide many opportunities for developing critical thinking, problem solving, and social participation skills.

(*Note:* In states where the study of state history and government is required by legislative mandate, basic concepts from law, justice, and economics can be incorporated into such a course.)

Grade X—Origins of Major Cultures: A World History

The tenth-grade program should have students learn about the major cultures and societies in the contemporary world. The course stresses the diverse economic, political, religious, and social systems. Historical perspective should be provided on major world events and movements. Students should develop a knowledge of and an appreciation for the contributions of many cultures to the collective wisdom of the human race. The course should include attention to those historical differences among people that lead to conflict. The course is basically history and should include the development of tools of historical analysis. Nonetheless, it incorporates related concepts from other social science disciplines, especially anthropology, geography, political science, and economics.

Grade XI—The Maturing of America: United States History

The eleventh-grade program should be a comprehensive course in American history that is organized chronologically and serves as a capstone for the study of American history in the elementary and secondary schools. The forces that shaped and continue to shape political, economic, and social institutions should be studied. Changes in social and cultural values should also be included. The impact of growing international involvements and commitments must be stressed. The growth of the arts and literature, social reform movements, the extension of civil rights, the labor movement, and the growth of government should be included. The diversity of ethnic and racial origins of Americans and the impact of this diversity on the development of the nation should be emphasized.

Grade XII—One-year course or courses required; selection(s) to be made from the following:

Issues and Problems of Modern Society

Issues and problems of modern society should provide numerous opportunities for students to make a critical analysis of enduring social issues. The scope is broadened in order to emphasize the global dimensions of American problems and issues.

Introduction to the Social Sciences

This course should deal with the content and modes of inquiry of the social sciences.

The Arts in Human Societies

This course should allow students to learn about the cultures of the world through the arts and literature.

International Area Studies

As an in-depth cross-cultural study of selected areas of the world, the course focuses on the interaction of different cultures in a defined area of the world.

Social Science Elective Courses: Anthropology, Economics, Government, Psychology, Sociology

Supervised Experience in Community Affairs

Local options

It is not possible to present *a* scope and sequence that would be appropriate for the many communities that comprise such a large and diverse nation as the United States. Using this scope and sequence as a guide, school districts should have little difficulty modifying the grades K–5 curriculum to suit local needs and requirements. The grades 6–12 curriculum, however, may present problems for local curriculum developers; and, therefore, the Task Force is presenting three options in addition to the sequence developed on pages 254 to 255. All four options are summarized on the chart on page 256.

Optional Sequences for Grades 6–12

All of the following options include:

1. one year of American history at grade 11
2. systematic study of all major culture regions of the world
3. at least one semester of economics and one semester of law-related studies

It would also be possible for local school districts to develop a "mix and match" option in order to capitalize on local teacher strengths, availability of instructional materials, and community expectations. Such locally developed sequences should, however, include the three components listed in #1, #2, and #3, above.

	OPTION 1 See pages 252–253 for descriptions of this option	OPTION 2	OPTION 3	OPTION 4
GRADE 6	People and cultures of the Eastern Hemisphere	European cultures with their extension into the Western Hemisphere	Land and people of Latin America	People and cultures of the Eastern Hemisphere
GRADE 7	A changing world of many nations: A global view	A changing world of many nations: A global view	People and cultures of the Eastern Hemisphere	A changing world of many nations: a global view
GRADE 8	U.S. History with emphasis on social history and economic development	Economics and law-related studies (one semester each)	Interdisciplinary study of the local region (geographic, social, economic, historical) with an environmental emphasis	Interdisciplinary study of the local region (geographic, social, economic, historical) with an environmental emphasis
GRADE 9	Economics and law-related studies (one semester each)	Cultures of the non-Western world	World history and cultures (2-year sequence)	World cultures
GRADE 10	World History (both Western and non-Western)	The Western heritage		The Western heritage
GRADE 11	U.S. History (chronological, political, social, economic)	U.S. History (chronological, political, social, economic)	U.S. History (chronological, political, social, economic)	U.S. History (chronological, political, social, economic)
GRADE 12	Series of options: see page 255 for list of possibilities	Government (one semester); Issues and problems of modern society (one semester)	Economics and law-related studies (one semester each)	Economics and law-related studies (one semester each)

Developing Democratic Beliefs and Values

EDUCATION TO ENGENDER BELIEFS and values, including variations called moral education, attitude education, developing personal integrity, or character education, has been a persistent theme in American education from early colonial schools to the present. Long before the scientific study of society developed such concepts as group cohesiveness and shared values, people knew from the experience of their forebears that individuals had to conduct themselves in ways consistent with a common set of beliefs and values if the behavior of individuals was to be predictable. Education in the home and in the school was designed to focus on those beliefs and values that translated into moral guidelines for citizens.

Value consensus theory suggests that there is a set of core values in a society on which there is some measure of concurrence. These values are engendered in each succeeding generation, thereby making it possible for society to perpetuate itself beyond the lifespans of individual citizens. As a matter of policy, the public clearly expects schools to inculcate those values on which there is consensus. State legislative mandates calling for the teaching of certain specific components of the social studies, such as state and national history, the Constitution, and economics, illustrate endorsements of certain beliefs and values associated with those subjects.

What are the democratic beliefs and values that should be selected for the social studies program? The *Essentials of Social Studies*, a National Council for the Social Studies publication, lists *justice, equality, responsibility, free-*

APPENDIX B

Scope and Sequence: Alternatives for Social Studies

INTRODUCTION

Donald H. Bragaw

At the National Council for the Social Studies House of Delegates meeting in November 1979, a resolution proposed by the California Council for the Social Studies was passed, asking the Board of Directors to appoint a special task force to examine the matter of developing a "series of options for scope and sequence for the K–12 curriculum in social studies which is based on the NCSS Curriculum Guidelines."

While the resolution asked for a task force composed of a cross section of social studies educators, the Board of Directors postponed action on the resolution because of budgetary considerations. In June 1981, however, President Theodore Kaltsounis appointed an ad hoc committee of the Board, chaired by Jan L. Tucker, to investigate the possibilities and hold a series of hearings at state and regional meetings. The Committee recommended to the Board of Directors in June 1982 that the Council develop a scope and sequence for the K–12 curriculum in social studies.

The Board accepted the report and asked President James Banks to appoint a task force. Because of severe budgetary constraints, Banks was unable to appoint a group from all parts of the country, but he assembled a volunteer group of distinguished professionals by concentrating the effort in the Northwest under the very able and respected leadership of John Jarolimek, a former NCSS president.

The Task Force met during 1982–83 and presented its report to the Board of Directors at its June 1983 meeting. In order to assure a national spectrum of opinion on the Task Force's report, President Banks had also appointed a National Advisory review panel representing a wide sampling of all segments of the Council's membership for an initial review. That review served as a "field test" of the document, and, based on the comments received, the Task Force made some changes that it felt were merited.

In November 1983, the Board of Directors accepted the Task Force Report as a preliminary statement and decided that the revised document should be circulated to the membership in the April 1984 issue of *Social Education* along with commentaries from a sampling of members across the country, and from the same membership spectrum of social studies professionals. The publication of the document brought a limited, but significant response, which again showed that teachers and supervisors of social studies across the country thought that the report well represented what *the* social studies scope and sequence should be. A smaller, but highly articulate group, primarily from the college and university membership, believed that the report represented, at best, a reinforcement of the status quo, if, indeed, it were not a step backward.

The composition of the Board of Directors had also changed since 1981 and 1982, and strong feeling emerged that the report was an acceptable position. However, given the diverse nature of social studies in both its discipline base as well as its state requirements across the nation, the Board felt that the profession would be ill-served if the National Council for the Social Studies were to endorse one scope and sequence design—which might have implied a "national scope and sequence."

It opted instead for the position of the original house resolution, that the Jarolimek report represented only one possible way in which a K–12 social studies program might be organized. Taking that position, the Board, at its November 1984 meeting, discussed ways in which to provide the membership with other possible ways to organize a K–12 scope and sequence. The program committee of the 1985 Annual Meeting was asked to provide for a major session to deal with possible alternatives. Following that session and after intense discussion, the Board of Directors adopted the idea that the scope and sequence discussion should become a continuing dialogue for the Council and directed that professional assistance be sought to develop alternative scope and sequence designs.

It was further decided that such alternatives would be published in *Social Education* in time for the Annual Meeting where sessions would be held to continue the dialogue. This issue of *Social Education*, then, is a key document closely related to the Annual Meeting and to continued professional discussion.

While several scope and sequence ideas have emerged over the years, there has been a fairly consistent adherence to the "expanding horizons" model formulated by Paul Hanna in the mid-1930s and cemented into place by textbook companies. Hanna's ideas reflected both the previous work done by various social studies educators and commissions—assumptions about how a child's social world grows—as well as a growing recognition of the United States' economic and political interdependence with other areas of the world that were also attempting to climb out of the depression. The rapidly accelerating involvement of the United States in the conflagration of war and its aftermath intensified the acceptance of the public's need to know about all the places where United States military forces were stationed and sometimes killed.

The notions of "distant" lands and "exotic" peoples were somewhat mitigated by filmed newsreels that became a major part of going to the movies during the late 1930s, the 1940s and the early 50s. That phenomenon was continued by the advent of television, which frequently used the medium to explore the vast

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wonders of the "unknown" and known world. The presence of numerous war brides from all over the world also helped to break down stereotypes of grass skirts, wooden shoes and Brunhilda-like maidens—all of which expanded people's horizons to a centralizing idea that people were as much alike as they were different.

The academic world of the social and behavioral sciences were significant contributors to this universalizing principle. Textbook writers tended to reflect that acceptance. But however one arranged subject matter in the social studies, certain constants remained:

- A clear commitment to democratic values.
- A need for students to know, to take pride in, and be able to call upon their historical roots.
- A need for students to know the structure and function of their governing and economic institutions, and to be able to compare them to others.
- A need to engage in more active civic participation.
- A call for student learning that commits them to active learning—social interaction.
- A recognition of other cultures and the varying values systems that exist throughout the world.

Dick Gross and Tom Dynneson's task in the introductory article is to put the progression of the arrangement of these ideas into historical perspective. Such perspective can give a greater sense of how the social studies profession (and the National Council for the Social Studies in particular) has responded to the notions of scope and sequence and the influences that have shaped those reactions.

The Alternatives Considered

The original report of the Task Force on Scope and Sequence was published in the April 1984 issue of *Social Education*, which in effect, constitutes a sixth alternative. A copy of the report can be obtained from *Social Education* at the NCSS office.

Adopting for his rationale the centrality—and thus the integrative nature—of history and cultural geography to the social studies program, Matt Downey asserts a schema that with the exception of one year, focuses on an "expanding historical horizon" consistent with Downey's understanding of the learning theory undergirding a child's perception of time and space. The social sciences provide the "theoretical insights," "concept rigor," and "precision of language" by which to study society and cultures.

Mike Hartoonian and Margaret Laughlin see education as having two major purposes: to maintain our cultural heritage and to improve self and society. The social studies in their view has the major integrative function for all schooling. But what specific social studies subject(s) should be presented at each grade level is a matter for local curriculum committees and teachers to decide—for such decisions are essentially political in nature. Laughlin and Hartoonian do see, however, broad themes that should guide such decision making and offer a series of questions linked to their view of learning theory, which might help a local committee to focus both its own thinking about the developmental nature of the social studies and the selection of grade level social studies topics.

Social studies, according to Shirley Engle and Anna Ochoa, should be the "confrontation of young citizens with the problems contained in the disciplines and in the unfolding of society, past, present and future." Continuing a heavy reliance on geography and history, Engle and Ochoa opt for a problem-solving rationale. Avoiding prescriptive grade by grade topics, they offer seven curriculum strands that offer curriculum decision makers a basis for the content of a K–12 social studies program.

Basing their rationale on the ideas of social transformation, Bill Stanley and Jack Nelson are less concerned with the *what* of social studies—for they would use traditional sources of data from history and the social sciences—than the *how* of how the subjects are taught. The focus of such studies would be on the "continuing improvement of society by applying social criticism and ethical decision making to social issues." While offering general guides to content selection for social studies at the K-3, 4–8 and 9–12 levels, Nelson and Stanley believe that social education (the preferable term) should be "constantly open to analysis, comparison, skepticism and critical judgment."

Willard Kniep ventures into the arena of global education by offering a rationale that would assert that all subjects—not just social studies—should be couched in terms that help students to see the vast network of interrelationships that permeate a constantly changing world. Like the previous three scope and sequence proposals, the specific content offered is suggestive and, within the guidelines offered, should be selected locally.

Accompanying the current discussion are voices from the past. Special boxed items distill the essence of what those who helped to set the terms of debate about scope and sequence for the past 60 years had to say.

Recent challenges to the way in which social studies is organized and taught today is but another reflection of the need for the profession to seriously evaluate where it has been along the scope and sequence road, and where present day domestic and global imperatives seem to be pointing. To paraphrase Shakespeare, the problem, Dear Brutus, may not be in our scope and sequences, but in our failure to stake out clear and achievable goals for the school area called social studies. That larger issue is the motivating force behind the effort that the National Council has initiated to establish a National Commission for the Social Studies.

In close cooperation with national history and social science organizations, the objective of such a commission would be to consider what the goals for social studies should be in the 21st century. Readers might well examine the rationales in each of the above scope and sequence alternatives to see how they could assist such a commission to more clearly focus on future needs in the area of social studies education. Such reflection would provide social studies faculties everywhere with a provocative basis for analyzing their own programs. ❑

Donald H. Bragaw is Chief, Bureau of Social Studies Education, New York State Education Department.

A Century of Encounter

Thomas L. Dynneson and Richard E. Gross

For more than 100 years, educators have struggled to develop an effective scope and sequence for the schools that can meet the needs of students and society while preparing the next generation for the challenge of the future.

The scope and sequence is the infrastructure (range and order) of the curriculum. It also is the connecting link between the theoretical foundation of the curriculum and the applied instructional materials used in the classroom. Scope and sequence encounters are rooted mainly in philosophical disagreements, the contemporary agendas of special interest groups, and the social issues that influence society. Encounters over scope and sequence are the battlefields on which educational decisions are fought and won or lost.

Scope and Sequence, 1886 to 1986

Encounters, 1886–1906: The Role of the Secondary Public School

In the 1880s the enrollment of the public schools overtook the enrollment of private schools. Public secondary schools were spreading across the nation and there was a need to define their role. With expanding enrollment in higher education, high schools tended more in the direction of college preparation and what was deemed necessary for entrance and success in the university.

Between 1894 and 1906, a number of influential national committees were formed to determine the nature of the high school and to prescribe a curriculum for these emerging schools. They recommended scope and sequence patterns that eventually would be adopted by the schools. During these early years, the social studies were especially influenced by the efforts of the American Historical Association (AHA) and the National Education Association (NEA) (Gross and Dynneson 1983, 19–20).

Encounters, 1906–1926: The Curriculum of the Secondary School

National committees continued to work on specific problems, but they often went beyond their assignments in order to advance the interests of their subject matter organizations. The historian tended to advance the cause of history and many social reformers and educators advanced the cause of progressive education. In 1916, the National Education Association formed a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, which established a scope and sequence for the social studies that in time became the standard secondary social studies framework.

> Encounters over scope and sequence are the battlefields on which educational decisions are fought and won or lost.

1916 Scope and Sequence

GRADE SEVEN	European history and geography
GRADE EIGHT	American history
GRADE NINE	Civics
GRADE TEN	European history
GRADE ELEVEN	American history
GRADE TWELVE	Government or problems of democracy

(Gross and Dynneson 1983, 20–21)

History maintained an important position in the curriculum when the social studies program was formed as a result of the NEA Commission. The influence of progressive education was felt when the Commission combined the theories of Herbert Spencer and the pedagogical principles of John Dewey with the principles of a new social history espoused by James Harvey Robinson. The "new history" promoted "social efficiency" and citizenship education. The result was a history with two missions. Academic historians were put off by these "reforms" and continued to promote "scientific history" for the schools (Hertzberg 1981, 27).

In 1926, the American Historical Association organized a committee on history and the social studies to revitalize the teaching of history in the schools, but the work of the multidisciplinary committee did not begin in earnest until the 1930s. Meanwhile, the historians remained unsettled by the conditions of history instruction in the public schools. The encounters of this era brought the idea of the social studies to the forefront, but curriculum and instructional practices of the schools remained quite traditional.

Encounters, 1926–1946: The Social Studies Under Attack

The National Council for the Social Studies had been founded in 1921 and had close ties with the American Historical Association. Historians helped to carry the Council through some very difficult times. During the Great Depression, some liberal historians became affiliated with the ideology of "social reconstruction."

They also attempted to reconcile old progressive principles with the new values and principles of the "New Deal." Harold Rugg, an advocate of "social reconstruction," crusaded to change the way history was being taught in the schools (Rugg 1923, 9–14). He especially disliked the nature of the social studies textbooks. Rugg promoted the idea that

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history and public education had a social mission to perform, to reconstruct American society (Rugg 1921, 249–252). During this same period, the eminent historian Charles Beard directed the American Historical Association's Commission on the Social Studies.

The Commission completed 17 reports that essentially promoted the disciplinary approach to the teaching of history. The Commission ended in a split decision over the acceptance of its own "Conclusions and Recommendations" (Gross and Dynneson 1983, 22). One year later, the NCSS published a yearbook that called for the use of a wider range of materials from the social sciences in an attempt to broaden the social studies scope and sequence of the curriculum.

In 1939, NCSS issued the first of a curriculum series entitled *The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Social Studies Curriculum*. The editor, James A. Michener, invited 15 social studies leaders to propose experimental scope and sequence designs for the social studies curriculum. The following approaches have been distilled from the experimental proposals:

- A Community or Civic-Centered Approach
- A Social Problems Approach
- A World Study or Global Approach
- A Social Reconstruction Approach
- A Child-Centered or Individualized Approach
- A Good Citizenship Approach

(Gross and Dynneson 1983, 22–29). While none of the proposals was adopted, the publication demonstrated the importance of scope and sequence experimentation to the social studies early in its history.

Scope and sequence in the social studies was also influenced by the NEA. The National Education Association, working with the American Association of School Administrators, sponsored the Educational Policies Commission. That Commission supported the curricular "fusion" approach or core curriculum. The core curriculum cut across subject or disciplinary lines (Hertzberg 1981, 56–57). This approach had great appeal to those who preferred an integrated approach to scope and sequence. The core approach added more fuel to the fire in the encounters that would follow between academicians and educators.

In 1941, historian Ralph W. Robey of Columbia University compiled abstracts of 800 social studies textbooks in a study commissioned by the National Association of Manufacturers. It was charged in the *New York Times* that the texts tended to criticize the U.S. government, were critical of the free-enterprise system and were poorly written (Hertzberg 1981, 66).

In another encounter, U.S. historian Allan Nevins charged that American history was being neglected. Nevins and others preferred the pure discipline approach as opposed to the more integrated approach of the social studies, which he designated as "social slush." Clearly, the encounters of this era did not serve to gain agreement on scope and sequence or to unify the field.

Encounters, 1946–1966: History and the Social Sciences vs. Citizenship and the Social Studies

The encounters of an earlier age continued into the late 1940s and middle 1950s. In 1953 and 1955, historian Arthur Bestor criticized the schools in broad-based charges that included a hazing of the social studies. Integrated instructional programs were the target of Bestor's attack. According to Bestor, the social studies approach led to a watered-down history (Bestor 1956, 126–29). The Cold War that had followed World War II led to open public debate about the ability of our educational system to prepare students for the new Soviet threat.

During this same period, Paul Hanna, working from a child development perspective, worked out a scope and sequence model. According to his model, students would begin a K–6 social studies program by starting with the experiences of the student.

Hanna's Proposed Scope and Sequence Model

GRADE ONE	1. The child's family community 2. The child's school
GRADE TWO	3. The child's neighborhood community
GRADE THREE	4. The child's local communities: city, county, metropolis
GRADE FOUR	5. The child's state community 6. The child's region-of-states community
GRADE FIVE	7. The U.S. national community
GRADE SIX AND ABOVE	8. The communities of the world

The Hanna model (Hanna 1963, 193), with some variations by different states and publishers, became the standard for elementary social studies.

The Soviet Union's launching of *Sputnik* led politicians and others to blame U.S. technological failures on U.S. education. As a result, the federal government sponsored and helped to finance a new educational reform movement. The reform movement led to the rise of the disciplinary approach in the social studies.

Separate projects in history and the social sciences eventually were started and before it ended, more than 100 projects were organized in the social studies. New experimental scope and sequence patterns emerged out of these efforts. The majority of these projects focused on what Jerome Bruner had termed the "structure of the discipline" in which scope and sequence patterns were organized around key disciplinary concepts (Gross and Dynneson 1983, 38).

As a result of these efforts, the social studies curriculum came under tremendous pressure to change and to accommodate new subjects. There simply was not enough room for all that was being proposed. This produced a "do-your-own-thing" mentality that led to near anarchy and a balkanization of the social studies. Again, encounters within and without the field brought greater diversification; from minicourses to mounting electives, it seemed that old patterns were finally being shattered (Gross 1977, 196).

Encounters, 1966–1986: Academician vs. Value and Ethical Education

By the mid-1960s, the Vietnam War and the Civil Rights movement changed the mood of the nation. Scholars began to reflect on the moral nature of our domestic and international affairs. In 1968, the country was in turmoil because of a series of social crises that directly affected the schools. Ever since the early progressive years, the social studies had had a natural concern for social problems. These concerns prompted encounters between the academic advocates of the disciplinary approach and those who focused on the social problems of our society (Morrissett 1979, 12–17). This led to various approaches that were designed to explore and investigate value issues and promote character and citizenship development.

By 1979, the fragmentation within the field was obvious. The profession began a search for unity and direction. The stability that remained in the curriculum was due mainly to a traditional scope and sequence pattern that had remained in place despite the pressures for change. The back-to-basics movement was also about to threaten the position of the social studies in the schools, and social studies leaders needed a program to defend their unsettled and shrinking terrain.

Considerations for the Future

As early as May of 1963, Richard E. Gross and Dwight Allen published an article in the Phi Delta Kappan calling for:

> the establishment of a national research center for social studies and a comprehensive, coordinated assessment of the social studies curriculum and instruction by a national commission responsible for planning alternative social studies programs, grades K through 14. (Gross and Allen 1963, 360)

Gross and Allen made recommendations regarding the future role of the profession in development and research on scope and sequence issues.

During the summer of 1979, a group of social studies leaders met at Stanford University in order to clarify the problems caused by encounters over scope and sequence issues. They formulated eight questions related to scope and sequence problems in order to find direction and consensus in the social studies (Gross and Dynneson 1980, 370–374).

In 1982, the NCSS board organized a Task Force to study and to make recommendations on scope and sequence.

In 1980, educators associated with the SPAN project located at Boulder, Colorado, identified six important problems that currently plagued the social studies. In an attempt to stimulate a new wave of creative thinking on scope and sequence the SPAN project developed an experimental scope and sequence that focused on the seven social roles that a person experiences during a lifetime (Morrissett, Hawk and Superka 1980, 558–586).

In 1982, the NCSS board organized a Task Force to study and make recommendations on scope and sequence. The Task Force issued its final report in November 1983. The report contained a proposed K–12 scope and sequence that emphasized a citizenship approach. The scope and sequence pattern within the Task Force recommendation was similar to the traditional pattern (Jarolimek et al. 1984, 249–262).

Those who are dissatisfied with the dominant scope and sequence within the social studies, as well as the one proposed by the Task Force, tend to fall into one or more of the following categories:

1. Those who feel that social studies does not meet the current or future needs of students.
2. Those who see social studies as a catalyst for social change.
3. Those who would promote research and development in scope and sequence models as a means to revitalize the field.
4. Those who support a specific project or program that is not currently in the mainstream of social studies instruction in the public schools.
5. Those who feel that a more academic approach is needed in the social studies.
6. Those who would like to balance the social studies curriculum by de-emphasizing the influence of history, civics or geography.

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Thomas L. Dynneson is a Professor of Education and Anthropology at the University of Texas of the Permian Basin. Richard E. Gross is Chair of Teacher Education and Curriculum at Stanford University in California.

The Voice of Harold Rugg

Murry R. Nelson

Harold Rugg was one of the co-founders of the National Council for the Social Studies and later produced the first nationwide curriculum series for the social studies for grades 7–9. Rugg edited Part II of the 23rd yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education on the Social Studies and the 26th Yearbook on the Curriculum. In 1939 he contributed a chapter in the NCSS Volume *The Future of the Social Studies*, edited by James A. Michener.

Rugg viewed social action and involvement as a keystone of education.

> The curriculum must be fashioned out of the very materials of child activity and of American life. . . . Rarely have the child, American civilization and the school been considered together. . . . Ideally the curriculum would be constructed on a problem solving organization, giving continuous practice in facing alternatives and making choices. (1927, x–xi)

Students have to be actively involved with their education because, "democracy cannot be understood except as it is lived." Similarly, "to study government effectively they must take part in governing" (1939, 152).

Rugg's ten principles of design indicate the nature of curriculum planning, curriculum construction and the role of social studies.

1. The program is designed; curriculum-construction is regarded as a technology of problems and design is the necessary prior step.
2. It is designed directly from the culture of the people . . . every outstanding way of life on the earth is studied—industrial-democratic cultures, conspicuous agrarian cultures, ways of living of native peoples.
3. Each unit of study is centered on a human "problem," institution, social system.
4. It is designed on rapidly rising growth curves to help bring about maximum development each year.
5. The design balances "doing now" and "getting ready to do tomorrow."
6. It makes the life of the school the chief instrument for "social study."
7. It is designed on a rigorous principle of "selection" . . . concentrates study on indispensable matters . . . illustrates the principle—mastery of essentials rather than superficial acquaintance with all.
8. It is designed on a flexible program of grade placement . . . in terms of maturity of meanings, concepts, generalizations and attitudes rather than of continents, countries, and periods of history . . . placement is in terms of groups of school grades rather than of single grades or age-groups.
9. It builds around problems and controversial issues, training in problem-solving and generalization.
10. While employing more historical data than is found in conventional courses of study, rather than less, it concentrates that study upon the identical factors and trends that produced contemporary conditions and problems. (1939, 140)

In order to build meaning into the social studies curriculum, Rugg advocated the use of dramatic episodes.

> The past must be dramatized if youth is to grasp the manner in which its deep-lying movements lead up to contemporary issues . . . .
>
> But the building of meaning involves more than dramatic feeling; even more essentially it involves the perception of relationship and the process of generalization. (1939, 155)

Constant work on problems was the key to Rugg's thinking and social studies was to provide that focus.

> It is through social study that children can be given a complete acquaintance with accepted modes of living. . . . Through participation in community and citizenship activities children can develop the habit of helping to decide important issues of group life . . . .
>
> Adequate information then and practice in using it, both essentials of efficient social action in a democracy are clearly desiderata for social science course. (1923, 2–3)

Harold Rugg saw the curriculum, particularly social studies, as a forum for problem analysis on real issues of importance and controversy. "To keep issues out of the school program is to keep life out of it" (1939, 155). Rugg's ideals and ideas are still useful guideposts for an active social studies program.

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Murry R. Nelson is an Associate Professor of Education at Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.

Time, Space and Culture

Matthew T. Downey

The purpose of the social studies is to help young people understand themselves and the society and world in which they live, so that they may act intelligently and responsibly as individuals and as citizens. In recent years, social studies educators have emphasized the importance of their subject in preparing students for the role of citizen. While citizenship education is an important purpose, we must make the case for the social studies in broader terms. The social studies prepares students to participate in a great variety of roles, private as well as public, personal as well as civic. It is capable of doing this because of the broad nature of its subject matter.

The social studies has a rich intellectual heritage upon which to draw. It is grounded in history and geography, is infused with conceptual and theoretical knowledge from the social sciences, and has access to the wide range of human thought and achievement embodied in the humanities. History and cultural geography are mirrors of collective human experience that reach back through the ages and across national and cultural boundaries. The social science disciplines of economics, anthropology, sociology, political science, and psychology give to the social studies the theoretical insights, the conceptual rigor and the precision of language that are indispensable tools for the study of societies and cultures. From the humanities, the social studies has borrowed other approaches to knowledge: from philosophy, questions of meaning and rules for logical thinking; from literature, ways to plumb the depths of human experience; from art and music, windows into the highest aspirations of the human spirit. No other part of the school curriculum is so well endowed to broaden the students' intellectual and social horizons, to expand the "known universe" in which they live.

A solid grounding in the disciplines is essential to the welfare of the social studies. It is the best safeguard against an aimless ecclecticism that would dilute the social studies curriculum with any sort of content that could arguably have social utility. However, to keep the curriculum moored to these academic disciplines does not mean that the social studies is, to paraphrase Edgar B. Wesley, the social sciences and the humanities simplified for pedagogical purposes.[1]

A scope and sequence statement is the framework upon which a curriculum is constructed.

The social studies has developed an identity of its own. Social studies subjects that are taught in the schools differ in several respects from the social science and humanities courses offered in the universities. As a school subject, social studies is more interdisciplinary, more concerned with skills development, and more normative. Its concern with values reflects the function of the schools as instruments of socialization as well as institutions of education. The social studies, to return to Edgar B. Wesley's definition, may be more accurately defined in its relation to the academic disciplines as the social sciences and the humanities adapted to meet the needs of young people and the requirements of the schools.

Goals in social studies education are usually stated in terms of knowledge, skills and values. These are the basic components of social studies instruction. Although there is currently wide agreement among social studies educators about the importance of each of these areas of instruction, each component has historically enlisted quite different constituencies in its support. From this perspective, "knowledge" has tended to be the banner under which social scientists and other academicians involved in social studies education have marched; "skills" is more often the rallying cry of social studies reformers from outside the academic disciplines; and "values" has been the identifying badge of cultural conservatives who call for greater emphasis on history and civics to inculcate patriotism and traditional moral values.[2]

Each of these central components of the social studies commands differing degrees of loyalty and commitment from teachers and educators. Although few individuals are committed to each in equal measure, most will agree that a social studies curriculum must embody all three.

Toward a New Scope and Sequence

This article presents an alternative to the scope and sequence recommended by the 1983 NCSS Task Force.[3] This alternative is derived from several sources, including the preceding brief statement of rationale. The scope of the content was determined partly as a perception of what students need to know to be able to act intelligently and responsibly, and its placement by assumptions about how children learn.

The nature of the subject matter of the social studies has also had a shaping influence. Time and space are difficult notions for young children to grasp, but they are integral to the social studies. The curriculum must be arranged to help them develop an understanding of how people, places and things are related in space and time. The scope and sequence described

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here departs in several respects from the one presented by the NCSS Task Force.

This scope and sequence abandons the expanding environments model, which bears little or no relationship to what we know about how children learn. As Diane Ravitch has persuasively argued, that model from the 1930s was grounded not in learning theory, but in the educational ideology of its time. "It is important to recall that the expanding environment approach was established not as a result of the findings of cognitive or developmental psychology, but as a result of specific social and political values," Ravitch notes. "The psychological claims on its behalf have never been established."[4]

The scope and sequence widely used today fails to provide an adequate structure for teaching history and geography. The primary grades do not prepare students for the formal encounter with history and geography in the later elementary grades by developing the skills necessary to deal with concepts of space and time. Once history instruction begins at grade 4 or 5, the present curriculum virtually assures that student interest in the subject will be quickly stifled by having to cover too much ground too rapidly and superficially.

For history instruction, the present curriculum relies largely on repeated use of the survey approach. Surveys of United States history are presented usually at three grade levels, with surveys of world history appearing in two grades. While the survey approach has value for the purpose of synthesis, by its very nature it sacrifices depth of learning to breadth of coverage. Its proper place is near the end of a history curriculum, after substantial learning has already been achieved. Repeated surveys are especially out of place in world history. Attempts to cover whole civilizations in a few days or, at most a few weeks, result in treatments too superficial for much permanent learning.

The scope and sequence presented here uses a chronological organization that places history and geography at the center of the social studies curriculum. Of all the social science and humanities disciplines, history is the one most capable of synthesizing the varieties of human experience. Its chronological organization provides a suitable framework for integrating much of the subject matter of the social studies. "Crowning them all is history, which began with the songs of bards and ends in philosophy," wrote Charles A. Beard in the 1932 report of the Commission on the Social Studies. "So conceived, history can furnish cement to bind all other social disciplines into a workable unity, giving to them a patterned background and, by virtue of its basic time element, a dynamic which pertains to the future."[5]

Wedded to literature and the humanities as well as to the social sciences, history is narrative as well as analytical. As Beard pointed out, the narrative description of events unfolding over time gives the social studies curriculum its dynamic quality. No less important is geography, which is concerned about the spatial context in which historical developments take place. As history helps students acquire a sense of historical time, geography gives them an understanding of the importance of place. Time and space are the fundamental dimensions in which human cultures evolve and human beings interact.

The proposed scope and sequence provides for an integrated social science and humanities curriculum. Each level of the curriculum and virtually each year at each level draws its content from a great variety of sources, including history, geography, anthropology, economics, political science, sociology and psychology, as well as literature, philosophy, art and architectural history, and music. One device that permits us to integrate knowledge from these several disciplines is the concept of culture. It is an important component of this proposed curriculum. The term culture is used here in its structural sense, as defined in the following way by Clyde Kluckhohn and W.H. Kelly: "A culture is an historically derived system of explicit and implicit designs for living which tends to be shared by all or specially designated members of a group."[6]

Culture, by this definition, includes values, customs and beliefs, but also other aspects of patterned and systematic group behavior. It includes social interactions that vary from one culture to another, patterns of political behavior, and artistic and literary expressions of a people. With culture defined in this way as a core concept, the curriculum permits the inclusion and cross-cultural comparison of a great variety of forms of human activity. It depends upon the historical dynamic to prevent the analysis of culture from becoming static and two-dimensional. The curriculum focuses on human cultures as they evolved over time in response to the actions of people within the cultures and interactions between cultures.

This scope and sequence also marks a departure from the prevailing pattern of repeated history surveys. It does not attempt to cover the whole of United States or world history each time the subject occurs. Instead, this framework emphasizes a different period at each grade level to give students time to examine each historical era in much greater depth than is now possible. It also develops a somewhat different historical synthesis at each grade level. The emphasis in grades 5 and 6 is on social history; economic and social developments receive major attention at grades 7 and 8; and a political/economic/social history synthesis is presented at grades 10 and 11. This design does not abandon the survey approach altogether. Each year of history instruction begins with a backward look at what came before, reaching back especially for the antecedents of major developments to be examined during that year.

Illustrative Scope and Sequence—Content

The scope and sequence statement that follows presents a model curriculum for social studies from kindergarten through grade 12. It is divided into three sections: primary grades (K–3), elementary grades (4–8) and secondary grades (9–12). Dividing the curriculum in this way serves to recognize that learning in the social studies is cumulative and that each stage of instruction should prepare students for more advanced learning at the next highest level.

Grade Level Placement: Primary Grades

In the primary grades, students are introduced to the concept of culture—an idea much too abstract to be used at this level—by looking at three of its most concrete dimensions. Cultural patterns are most visible in the way people (1) provide for the necessities of life, (2) live together, and (3) enrich their lives and express themselves through the visual arts, storytelling and literature, music and dance. Learning how people have lived in other places and times helps children develop new vantage points from which to see themselves and the world around them.

Learning to view the world from alternative perspectives is an essential step in developing reflective and critical thinking. Social studies instruction in the primary grades contributes fundamentally to the development of higher-level thinking skills.

The primary social studies curriculum also helps children learn how to think in disciplined ways about space and time, two of the most difficult concepts that students must master.

Kindergarten: The Children's World

The children's first encounter with the social studies in kindergarten should be a wide-ranging introduction to the way people live as seen through the eyes of children. They should be introduced to all kinds of children, those who live far away as well as nearby and those who lived in remote times as well as the present. They should also become acquainted with children in literature and in fantasy.

During each encounter, students should be given time to compare their own experiences with those of the children they are learning about. Instruction this year should examine children's play, nursery rhymes and children's stories, conditions of family living and a variety of relationships between children and adults. Kindergarten should also begin formal instruction in spatial and temporal relationships, concentrating on personal space (school and home) and personal time (daily routines).

The scope and sequence presented here uses a chronological organization that places history and geography at the center of the social studies curriculum.

Students should learn to make simple maps of the spaces around them, to tell time and make simple time schedules. Above all, social studies instruction should help make this an exciting year, a year filled with mental adventures out into space and back in time.

Grade 1: Essentials for Living

Social studies instruction at grade 1 should focus on the most basic elements of human culture, things that people depend upon to meet their daily needs—shelter, food, clothing, tools, means of transportation, and, in modern societies, basic services. While instruction should from time to time be concerned with the here and now of the students' own lives, the sense of adventure planted in kindergarten must be nurtured by examining how people in other places and times have provided for basic needs in their own unique ways. The students should compare types of houses, clothing styles and levels of technological development at various times and places, as depicted in art and literature, especially children's literature, and in factual accounts. They should also examine the kinds of work people have done, and the music they have composed—both about work and to help ease the drudgery of work. They should discover similarities in the human experience, despite great differences in the way people have met their basic needs.

Their learning about spatial relationships can continue by examining the location of essential places and services in their neighborhood and community. They can map their way to school or to the shopping center. They may look at time in terms of family or generational time, comparing physical aspects of their lives with those of their parents when they were children.

Grade 2: Living Together

At the second grade, attention should shift to the social groups in which people live and to the institutions and customs that groups of people create. Instruction should begin with the family, move on to examine kinship groups, work groups, social groups and people grouped into nations. As in the earlier grades, the students' encounters with groups of people should be wide-ranging in space and time, although never losing touch with the here and now. In each instance, instruction should focus on the human needs that groups help people fulfill—linking this knowledge to that already acquired in the 1st grade about the way people meet and have met essential needs. The students should also look at customs and traditions developed through group living, including special family days and national holidays.

Social studies at grade 2 should also be concerned about the quality of life that living in groups makes possible, foreshadowing the qualitative emphasis that will receive major attention in the grade 3. The development of the students' understanding of spatial and temporal relationships should continue by having them map spaces related to their own family and kin, including family migration patterns, and by examining the temporal dimensions of family and group experience. Constructing family trees, timelines and finding out about the history of their family are suitable activities.

Grade 3: Living Well

At the 3rd grade, the focus of social studies instruction shifts once again, this time to qualitative dimensions of living. People do more than survive and organize themselves into societies; they also express their feelings and aspirations in tangible ways, decorate their surroundings and develop visions of a better life. Although these dimensions of culture have been touched upon briefly in previous grades, here they should be given major attention. The students should look at how styles of clothing and shelter reflect a people's artistic tastes and notions of beauty as well as practical necessity. They should explore some of the ways that groups of people have used literature, folklore and myths, and art and music to give meaning to their daily experiences and to express hopes and aspirations; and they should compare these to aspects of their own culture today.

Introducing students to folklore and myths can also help prepare them for their encounter with cultures of primitive and early peoples in the elementary grades. Students can continue learning to use concepts of space and time by being introduced to the history of their community and by making maps that show its relationship to other communities in their state and region.

Grade Level Placement: Elementary Grades

The elementary social studies curriculum introduces students to the formal study of history and geography. Equipped with an understanding of the basic components of the concept of culture (an abstraction that most students will not yet have grasped) and with the capacity to think backward in time and outward in space, students are ready to investigate people and culture in historical times. Instruction must still be kept concrete, with many opportunities provided for the students to relate past to present.

Instruction at the elementary level provides the historical knowledge that students must have to understand 20th century societies and cultures, which they will examine at the secondary school level.

Grade 4: Early Peoples of the World

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when instruction is designed to consolidate the knowledge learned in the primary grades and to prepare the students for the formal study of history and geography that will begin in grade 5. It consists of an examination of primitive peoples and cultures. Much of the time should be spent on native American groups in North and South America, including an investigation of Indian cultures in the students' own locality and region.

For comparative purposes, students should also be introduced to early human societies in Africa and Europe and to primitive cultures that still exist today. This year of study should challenge students to push back their conception of time to prehistorical eras. It should also give them practice in viewing cultures in a holistic way, seeing how one aspect of living relates to another. This is more easily done with primitive cultures than with more complex modern ones. It is also easier to understand the relationship between human culture and the physical environment by studying primitive societies. Finally, this venture into primitive societies will provide the perspective needed for the students to grasp the significance of the classical civilizations that they will encounter in grade 5.

Grade 5: Classical and Medieval Civilizations

Instruction for this year formally begins the study of history and geography in the social studies curriculum. Students will study civilizations on three continents, Asia (including Japan), Europe and Africa. Each unit of study should be concerned about the evolution of a culture and how people of different cultures responded to their physical environment. The year should begin with an examination of early civilizations of the Near East and of classical Greece and Rome, followed by a unit on China through the Han Empire (220 AD) to give the students an opportunity to compare cultural development in the West and East during approximately the same historical era. But these should not be static comparisons. Each unit must show how the culture developed and changed over time and how Greeks, Romans and Chinese interacted with other peoples.

A third unit should present the expansion of Islam and examine what life was like in Islamic civilization at about the end of the 8th century. Another set of comparative studies should focus on Western Europe during the Middle Ages and the emergence of feudal society in Japan. A final comparison should examine Western Europe during the Renaissance and China during the Ming dynasty (1368–1644). Treatment of Renaissance Europe should include the expansion of European commerce during the 16th century and European voyages of exploration. The year should conclude with an investigation of an African culture of the premodern period, such as the Benin kingdom in West Africa during the 16th and 17th centuries.

> **Adequate attention should be given to the art, music, folklore and customs, and religious beliefs of the people who helped build the new nation.**

In each study, students should examine multiple dimensions of each culture, observe how the culture changed over time and view it within a larger regional and world context. The focus should be kept concrete, emphasizing social history.

Grade 6: U.S. History: Building a New Nation

U.S. history should be introduced in this grade, with major attention given to the colonial background, the creation of the United States and the expansion of this new nation across the continent. Each unit should include instruction in geography, including the physical geography of each region studied and the interplay between culture and environment. Although basically a course in United States history, this year should also help give students a hemispheric perspective.

When appropriate, they should have opportunities to examine parallel developments in North and South America, especially European colonization and movements for national independence. Instruction this year will bring U.S. history to the end of the Mexican War. A unit on state history may be included at an appropriate place to examine larger historical developments in a local context. Despite the emphasis on nation-building, this should not be primarily a year of political history. The focus should be on social history, including everyday lives of ordinary people, and on the social and cultural diversity of the early United States. Adequate attention should be given to the art, music, folklore and customs, and religious beliefs of the people who helped build the new nation.

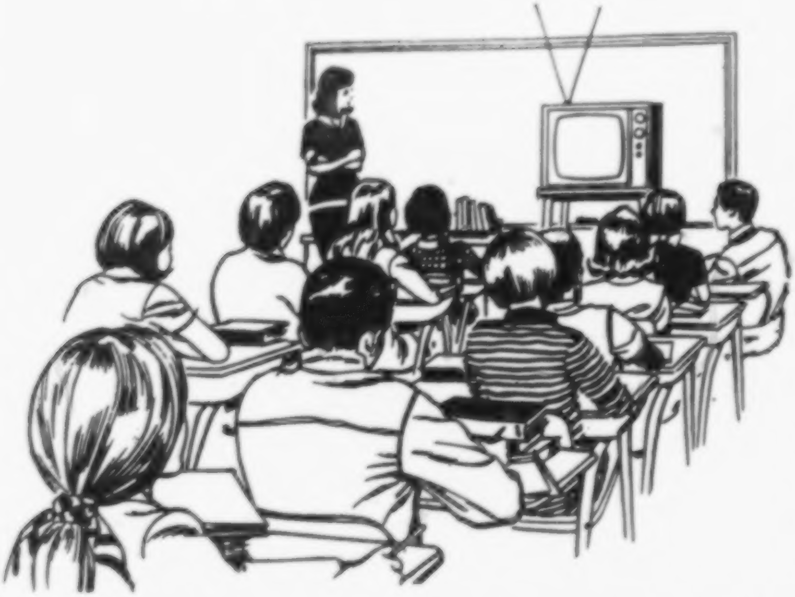
Grade 7: World History: Early Modern and Industrial Eras

Students in the 7th grade will return to a world history and cultures perspective, with the focus on the web of relationships that developed between Europe, Asia and Africa during the 18th and 19th centuries. The students' geographical education will continue, with the emphasis this year on world economic geography. Instruction should begin with a review of the social and cultural developments examined in the 5th grade, especially the intellectual awakening of Western Europe in the Renaissance.

During the course of the year, the students should examine the following areas and periods in depth: Europe during the Enlightenment (1689–1789), the Industrial Revolution in England (1750–1850), China in transition (1700–1900), the modernization of Japan (1850–1900), Africa under colonial rule (1825–1900) and tradition and change in India and Southeast Asia (1763–1900). The students should consider why some cultures were more successful than others in resisting Western ways during the era of European expansion. Special attention should be given to developments in European art and music, and to the emergence of modern literary styles.

Grade 8: United States History: Making an Industrial Nation

In the 8th grade, students will study modernization and social change in a single nation by examining U.S. history from 1789 to 1914. Geographical educa-



tion will emphasize changing patterns of land use that accompanied industrialization and urban growth. The year should begin with a review of early American history, with emphasis on the development of trade and handicraft manufacturing during the colonial and early national periods.

Instruction should focus on economic changes associated with industrialization and on the impact of these developments on American society and culture. Political history should receive more attention than it did in grade 5, with particular attention given to the growing sectional divisiveness that led to the Civil War.

Students should also look at U.S. literature, art and architecture, especially as these cultural forms reflected social change. Although the course should focus on the United States, it should not present U.S. history in isolation. It should look at the expansion of the United States' commercial influence in Latin America, at territorial expansion in the Caribbean and in the Pacific, and at the complex web of cultural and intellectual ties that developed between the United States and Europe.

Grade Level Placement: Secondary School Grades

The modern world is the focus of the social studies curriculum in the secondary school years. The historical knowledge about societies and cultures that the students acquired in elementary school will provide a solid foundation upon which to build a mature understanding of the 20th century world. History instruction in the secondary grades should consist mainly of modern history. However, both years of historical study should begin with a modified survey to provide students with a historical synthesis to enable them to place 20th century developments within a larger historical framework. Social studies instruction in the secondary years should focus on civic education—preparing students for their role as citizens in a democratic society and interdependent world.

Grade 9: Community Civics

In this year-long civics course, students learn about their community, become acquainted with local public issues and get involved in community service. The focus of instruction is the public life and institutions of the town or city in which they live. To become better acquainted with the community, students should undertake either a local history project or an investigation using a social science research method. This activity will also help them develop research, writing and thinking skills. Students should also learn about the community, its history and opportunities available for citizens to contribute to the welfare of the community. This can be done, in part, through presentations by and interviews with community leaders and public officials.

A second major project for the year will require students to become involved in some useful community service as the basis for a reflective essay to be submitted by the end of the year on the value of civic participation. This course in community civics is grounded on the assumption that good citizenship begins at home.

Grade 10: The World in the 20th Century

Instruction this year will consist of world history emphasizing the 20th century. An introductory unit should review the students' knowledge of world history acquired in earlier years, looking at aspects of European, Islamic, Asian and African cultures that have endured over time as well as those that changed during the process of modernization.

This broad synthesis will help students place the 20th century world in historical perspective. Students should examine the growing instability of Europe during an era of world wars and economic depression and the growth of nationalism in areas of the world colonized by European nations. They should look at people and cultures that were resisting European influence by mid-century and trace the demise of colonialism after World War II. These developments need to be examined within the context of the ideological and political conflicts of the Cold War era and the emergence of the Third World as a force in world affairs. Students should also examine investment and trade patterns and the growing economic interdependence of nations. Aspects of cultural change and cultural diffusion should also be explored by examining the impact of mass media and modern communications technology on peoples and cultures in the world today. Geographical instruction should emphasize world cultural geography in this 20th century and the growing interdependence of the world's peoples.

Grade 11: The United States in the 20th Century

The year of modern world history will be followed by a course on the United States in the 20th century. It should begin with a survey that traces major threads of historical development that made possible the emergence of the United States as a major industrial and world power by 1900. However, most of the year should be devoted to 20th century developments. Students should examine the emergence of the modern corporate economy, changes in the social structure and ethnic composition of U.S. society in the 20th century, and changes in the family and other social institutions.

Political history should focus on the expanding role of government in U.S. life and the success of our political institutions in adapting to change. This should also be a course in cultural history, defined broadly enough to include popular culture and the mass media as well as art and literature. Geography instruction should focus on U.S. cultural geography in the 20th century, with particular emphasis on our people's changing perceptions of environmental resources.

Grade 12: U.S. Citizenship in the Modern World

The capstone of the social studies curriculum is a year of national and world civics designed to help students define their role and responsibilities as citizens of a modern democratic society in an increasingly interdependent world. The year should begin by looking backward to the roots of U.S. political culture and the meaning of citizenship in a democratic republic. The students should examine the assumptions about the inalienable rights of human beings that date from the 18th century Enlightenment and were embodied in the Declaration of Independence and protected for American citizens by the Bill of Rights.

> Values education is an issue that the social studies profession has approached with considerable caution.

They should also consider the implications of the nation's commitment to republican government and to human rights in U.S. foreign policy and for the responsibilities of U.S. citizens in the world community. Students should be responsible for two projects during this year. One will require research leading to some course of action on a public issue of national importance. For the second project, they must do the same for an issue of international significance. While we assume that good citizenship begins at home, we do not assume that it ends there.

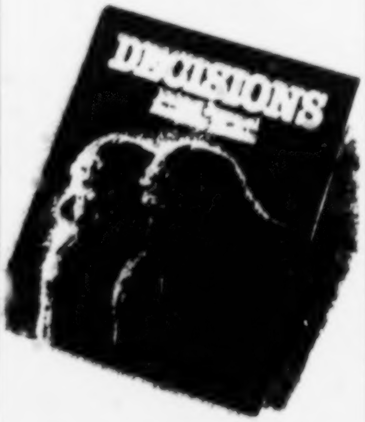
Values and Social Studies Education

Public schools have an important role to play in transmitting values from one generation to the next. In many ways, schools influence what young people value and believe, an influence brought to bear indirectly as well as through classroom instruction. Even within the classroom, students may learn as much about valuing from the example provided by the teacher as from the precepts of textbooks.

As James P. Shaver and William Strong note, "In short, the hidden curriculum—that is, the pervasive approach to discipline, the approaches to 'teaching' that are shared from one classroom to the next, the techniques of hallway-lunchroom-playground management—has a powerful educational influence."[7]

Of course, children do not learn about values only or even primarily in school. Their family, their peers, the religious groups and youth organizations to which they belong, and, not least, the communications media to which they are daily exposed exert a strong influence. However, formal classroom instruction plays a part in values education, and social studies instruction can contribute to that education in significant ways.

Values education is an issue that the social studies profession has approached with considerable caution. True, virtually everyone agrees that schools have a responsibility in the area of values education. Frameworks and guidelines for teaching social studies have traditionally included values as one of the areas in which goals should be set for social studies instruction. But what values education entails is usually carefully circumscribed. For example, the 1983 NCSS Task Force report limits the role of social studies in values education to teaching "democratic beliefs and values" and makes it clear that it is referring only to civic values about which a consensus is thought to exist among the American people.[8]



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As a result, such documents rarely get beyond a discussion at the most general level of those beliefs that most of us would agree make up the American civic creed. They reiterate our belief in the value of equality, liberty, justice, freedom of speech and religion, and our respect for the democratic process and the rights of others. While reinforcing such values is important, this should not be the only goal of values education in the social studies. The social studies curriculum must also recognize that values govern private as well as public behavior and that values produce controversy and conflict in our society as well as national unity.

Let us look first at the most commonly accepted role of the social studies in values education, the perpetuation of civic values that are part of our common democratic culture. There is wide agreement that social studies teachers have a responsibility to deal explicitly with the basic values of our society. Many educators also agree that teachers should try to encourage and strengthen their students' commitment to democratic values. The question is not whether this is a legitimate responsibility, but what is the best way to fulfill it?

The teaching of civic values should be approached historically by helping students understand why people have thought certain beliefs worth valuing and why they have found certain values worth perpetuating over time. This should include values of both their own and other cultures. Above all, it means treating values as a legitimate historical subject and valuing as a human activity worth historical consideration in the classroom.

Values education in the social studies must examine private as well as public values. While history is a suitable vehicle for teaching about standards of personal ethical behavior, other humanities subjects serve equally as well. The capacity of the humanities to explore such questions is a major reason for introducing more humanities content into social studies instruction. "Basically the humanities are modes of thinking that are value laden," noted A. Bartlett Giamatti at a recent humanities conference at Yale University. "They are different from other academic or human modes of thinking in that they don't wish to presume that truth would be found by denying value or pretending as much as possible to be value free, despite the fact that we know nothing is."[9]

For the purpose of values education, literature is an especially worthy ally of the social studies. Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn* is a great deal more than a novel about growing up in Missouri in the 19th century, as Alan Donagan reminds us. "Its subject is its hero's education in how to value rightly—an education he acquires largely outside the classroom. . . . And if you were asked what is to be valued in the way [Huck and Jim] behave towards one another (I cannot imagine anybody who would need to ask) perhaps the best answer would be: that is how people behave who respect one another simply as people, and are not seeking to manipulate or exploit one another."[10] Questions about how to treat other human beings are as essential to values education in the social studies as are questions about principles of democratic governance.

Finally, the social studies classroom should become a forum for examining value conflicts. It may be the only neutral environment that students have to explore value differences that are sources of disharmony and conflict in our society. Although dealing with value conflicts that may be rooted in religious beliefs, ethnic subcultures, or regional and local traditions requires sensitivity, it need not be traumatic. The historical orientation of the social studies allows students to raise questions about values and valuing in contexts other than their own immediate social environment.

Because many of the value issues that divide us today reflect fundamental concerns of people over time, we can examine and approach present conflicts from distant vantage points. To look only at those core values about which most Americans agree is to deprive students of opportunities to learn about fundamental differences that divide our society and how they came to exist. It is also to rob the social studies of the vitality that comes from studying the real world that lies beyond the classroom and textbook.

Values education should be a continuing strand woven into the social studies curriculum at each grade level. With each historical period and culture studied, instruction should be provided about what people placed value upon and what were the individual and social consequences of these value choices. Instructional materials that address questions of values and of valuing in various historical and cultural contexts must be made available to teachers.

Skills in the Social Studies Curriculum

Public schools are responsible for helping young people develop a wide variety of intellectual and other skills—basic skills of reading, writing and working with numbers; thinking skills and habits of critical thinking; skills related to success in school (study skills, library skills, test-taking skills), and skills related to working with other people. Social studies instruction can play a major role in helping the schools meet this important responsibility.

Unfortunately, the profession has failed to present a convincing case for the value of the social studies as a vehicle for skills instruction. The skills sections of scope and sequence statements are invariably the most deadening, mechanically presented and presumably the least consulted part of these documents. They usually feature a taxonomical listing of thinking skills based on the work of Benjamin Bloom, a continuum that begins with classification skills, extends through skills of interpretation, analysis and synthesis, ending with those skills pertinent to the evaluation of information.

While such lists may help some of us think abstractly about skills, they are otherwise quite sterile. They do not lead to a better understanding by the general public or by school officials or even by classroom teachers of the value of social studies for advancing the most basic purpose of the schools. Like those display cases of stuffed birds in natural history museums, the lists of skills remain lifeless taxonomies.

Taxonomic lists of skills are very misleading, especially as a description of skills development in the social studies. The mechanical arrangement of discrete skills belies the dynamic way in which they are actually used and learned in a social studies classroom. As every teacher knows, skills are not isolated, discrete behaviors. They are interrelated, interdependent and used in endlessly varied combinations.

Such lists also leave the impression that skills are generic, that one uses the same skills to interpret a poem, a historical event or an index of economic statistics. Skills are obviously grounded in subject matter, have limited transferability from one subject to another and cannot be learned in a content vacuum.

The fact that intellectual skills are interrelated and content-based gives the social studies an extraordinary versatility as a vehicle for skills development. Representing many disciplines, content areas and modes of inquiry, the social studies curriculum provides a large arena to develop skills in various combinations and in overlapping patterns. It is difficult to imagine a skill-learning environment as rich and complex as a social studies classroom.

Making the public aware of the value of social studies as a resource for skill development is one of the major challenges facing social studies educators today. We must develop an alternative model for skills development that reflects the complex and dynamic process by which skills are actually learned in a social studies classroom. In the absence

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of such a model, we must at least demonstrate how social studies instruction relates to each of the major areas in which the schools have responsibilities for developing skills. The following is an outline of how such a presentation might be organized.

I. BASIC SKILLS

The subject matter of the social studies provides students with extensive opportunities to learn or further develop basic skills, including the following:

A. Reading skills: social studies assignments require reading of historical narratives, first-hand accounts and other primary sources, and great literature from many cultures and periods of history.
B. Writing skills: social studies assignments require students to write reports, book reviews and essays, which teachers use as a vehicle for improving writing skills as well as evaluating other kinds of learning.
C. Oral language skills: students in social studies classes take part in discussions, respond to questions posed by the teacher and give oral reports.
D. Information-gathering and research skills: social studies instruction requires students to seek out information through independent investigations using libraries and repositories of information.
E. Memorization skills: to keep information available in short-term memory long enough to organize and synthesize it, students learn basic memorization techniques in social studies classes.
F. Study skills: through social studies instruction, students develop a wide range of study skills.

In social studies instruction, these skills are not developed independently or in isolation. The skills are used in varying combinations, with a typical social studies assignment requiring a demonstration of competence in several of the above skills. Social studies instruction provides for integrated skills learning.

II. SKILLS SPECIFIC TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES

In social studies classrooms, students develop basic skills, such as those described above, in conjunction with other skills that are specific to the subject matter of the social studies. That is, they learn to apply basic skills in a variety of skill-learning contexts. Among the skills specific to the content of the social studies are the following:

A. Skills related to understanding time relationships: understanding how events and people are related in time requires both knowledge and skills. These knowledge-based skills include the ability to see causal and other relationships between historical developments, events and actors.
B. Skills related to the analysis and interpretation of historical information: the critical use of historical information requires a wide range of skills, from detecting bias in historical evidence to determining the frame of reference from which a historical narrative was written.
C. Skills related to understanding spatial relationships: these skills include a variety of geography skills, including the ability to prepare and read maps, to visualize topography and to see relationships between spaces.
D. Skills related to the use of social science knowledge: concepts derived from the social sciences are powerful tools for generalizing about human phenomena and understanding relationships between them. The social sciences also provide skills in methods of research and in the analysis of social data.
E. Skills related to the use of knowledge grounded in the humanities: the humanities disciplines provide training in a great variety of skills, especially proficiency in the application of rules of logic and methods of critical analysis.

In real classroom situations, the basic skills and specific skills described above are highly interactive. The discussion of a single historical document calls upon a student's ability to see chronological relationships, to discuss content in terms of abstract concepts, to analyze a text critically and to engage in the give-and-take of an oral presentation.

III. THE ABILITY TO THINK CRITICALLY

The ultimate goal of social studies education in the area of skills development is to promote the ability to think critically. While wide agreement exists among social studies educators about the importance of critical thinking, there is not a consensus about what the term means. It is often used as a synonym for "higher level thinking," which can mean almost anything beyond the level of rote learning. For our purpose here, we will use John E. McPeck's definition of critical thinking as "reflective scepticism," its most notable characteristic being "a certain scepticism or suspension of assent towards a given statement, established norm or mode of doing things."[11]

To be reflective, such skepticism must be grounded in knowledge of a particular subject. As McPeck notes, the critical thinker must know when to ask questions and what questions to ask. Both require knowledge about the subject. Defined in this way, critical thinking can only be taught in the schools within the context of a school subject. While one can develop the ability to think critically about any subject, the skill is not transferrable to a subject about which one is not well informed.

The ultimate goal is reached when students develop the ability to think critically about people and events in the world today—the crowning achievement of social studies education, the hallmark of an educated person and the prerequisite for responsible citizenship. Only through the kind of education embodied in the social studies curriculum is the goal attainable. From kindergarten on, the social studies student learns to view the world from many vantage points, to interpret reality from the perspectives of various peoples and cultures.

As a result, students learn that while truth may seem absolute, it is also tentative. Not all the evidence is on hand yet. They learn that how one interprets reality also depends upon one's time, place and perspective. Still, one must act on the best evidence, the most persuasive interpretation, the fullest truth available. The development of such reflective scepticism, combined with knowledge and the good citizens' willingness to act, is central to the purpose of schools in a democratic society.

Notes

[1] This was Wesley's famous definition "The *social studies* are the *social sciences* simplified for pedagogical purposes." Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (New York: D.C. Heath, 1937), 4.

[2] This is a reworking of John D. Haas's reformulation of the three approaches to the social studies described in Robert D. Barr, James L. Barth and S. Samuel Shermis, *Defining the Social Studies* (Arlington, VA: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977). For Haas's model of the competing traditions in the social studies, see Irving Morrissett and John D. Haas, "Rationales, Goals and Objectives in Social Studies," in *The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN* (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1982): 19–29.

[3] "In Search of a Scope and Sequence for Social Studies: Report of the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Scope and Sequence, November 1, 1983." *Social Education* 48 (April 1984): 252.

[4] Diane Ravitch, "The Erosion of History in American Schools, with Especial Attention to the Elementary School Curriculum" (Paper delivered at the 1986 Annual Meeting of the Organization of American Historians and the National Council on Public History), 13.

[5] Beard, *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*, 18–19, 20.

[6] Quoted in Julius Gould and William L. Kolb, *A Dictionary of the Social Sciences* (New York: The Free Press, 1964), 166.

[7] James P. Shaver and William Strong, *Facing Value Decisions: Rationale Building for Teachers* (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1976), 69.

[8] "In Search of a [illegible] and Sequence for Social Studies," 256–257.

[9] Quoted in "Education Watch," New York *Times*, April 13, 1986.

[10] Alan Donagan, "The Humanities and the Problem of Teaching Values" (Paper presented to the California Humanities Project, Conference II, Pomona, CA, February 21, 1986.)

[11] John E. McPeck, *Critical Thinking and Education* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981), 6, 19.

Matthew T. Downey is Professor of History at the University of California, currently serving as Visiting Professor in the Graduate School of Education at the University of California, Berkeley.

George Counts, A Visionary's Contribution

Bruce Romanish

George S. Counts was an American visionary who saw the need for education as pivotal in the democratic life of the future. The nature of change itself coupled with the features of the emerging world order led him to proclaim, "Although the earthly neighborhood is fantastically small when measured in terms of speed of communication, it is vast indeed when viewed from the standpoint of human understanding."[1]

Schools are a reflection of the society they serve and therefore reveal much about a culture. According to Counts:

> There have been as many educations in history as there have been human societies. It is as much an integral part of a culture or civilization as an economic or political system. The very way in which education is conceived, whether its purpose is to enslave or free the mind, is an expression of the society which it serves . . . of necessity an education is a most intimate expression of a particular civilization.[2]

Its aims should be clearly known for "the record should teach us that only an education designed to serve beneficent ends can ever be beneficent in any human conception of the term."[3]

The social obligations of an education serving democratic ends are central in Counts' outlook and place social studies at the heart of the enterprise:

> Love of liberty, even love of country, cannot be compelled by legislation. And the same may be said of a sense of fairness, a spirit of tolerance of differences, an abhorrence of injustice, an acquiescence in majority rule, devotion to the Bill of Rights, and an experimental and inquiring mind.[4]

He saw the dignity and worth of the individual as the most notable of democracy's attributes: "Probably the most distinctive feature of a democracy is the value which it places on the individual human being, regardless of race, creed, family, or other social category." He continued by stating:

> In the measure that individuals are treated unequally and arbitrarily with respect to educational advantage, economic opportunity, administration of justice, enjoyment of rights and responsibilities, or access to social rewards and honors, the society involved violates this basic principle.[5]

Yet the beliefs are meaningless in the absence of the democratic spirit, the jewel of the American heritage, which is the feature Counts sought to preserve through the schools:

> If America should lose her[sic] revolutionary temper, she will no longer be America. In that day, if it has not already arrived, her spirit will have fled and she will be known merely as the richest and most powerful of the nations. If America is not to be false to the promise of her youth, she must do more than simply perpetuate the democratic ideal of human relationships: she must make an intelligent and determined effort to fulfill it. The democracy of the past was the chance fruit of a strange conjunction of forces on the new continent; the democracy of the future can only be the intended offspring of the union of human reason, purpose, and will. The conscious and deliberate achievement of democracy under novel circumstances is the task of our generation.[6]

Notes

[1] *Education and the Foundation of Human Freedom* (Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1962): 40.

[2] "A Rational Faith in Education," *Teachers College Record* 60 (1958): 257.

[3] "A Rational Faith in Education," 257.

[4] "The Intangible Supports of Liberty," *Educational Forum* (January 1956): 139.

[5] "Educate for Democracy," *Phi Delta Kappan* 30 (1949): 194.

[6] *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* (New York: John Day Company, 1932): 37.

Bruce Romanish is an Assistant Professor at St. Cloud University, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

Designing a Scope and Sequence

H. Michael Hartoonian and Margaret A. Laughlin

The design for curriculum development suggested here is based upon the assumption that specific scope and sequence decisions should be made by local curriculum committees and teachers. For the most part, these decisions are political. They are decisions based upon the authority and power of individuals and groups, and are steeped in tradition and the conventional wisdom of the profession.

Given this assumption, it is our intention to suggest an alternative approach to curriculum decision making based upon a series of necessary (though not sufficient) themes and questions that can initiate a dialogue about the logical, philosophical and psychological relevance of scope and sequence to the teaching and learning of social studies.

Rationale

Education must always be defined within the context of a particular society. This is the case primarily because education is responsible for maintaining the cultural heritage and improving self and society. This requires freedom and continual criticism, including the opportunity to search for truth and to test ideas. Basic to continual criticism is the availability of information, refining of the skills of communication, and respect for self and others.

Improvement of civilization incorporates the thoughtful consideration of change, an understanding of the workings of society and the courage to act upon reasoned convictions. The schools have a major responsibility in the development of civilization by providing new generations with knowledge, skills, attitudes and perspectives that permit freedom, continual criticism and improvement.

Certainly, other social institutions such as the family, church and media also have responsibilities to transmit information and knowledge important to the development of informed and thoughtful citizens. In a democratic republic, however, education becomes even more important because our system is built upon the concept of the "enlightened citizen"—that is, an individual in touch with the cultural heritage; possessing a working knowledge of the economic, political and social factors that make up the human ecosystem in which we all must function; an individual who understands the principles of rule of law, legal limits to freedom and majority rule with minority rights; and an individual who possesses the attitudes of fair play, seeks cooperation and demands quality in the character and work of self and others. Without a conscious effort to teach and learn these things, a free republic will not long endure. Thus, our first priority—our first public policy goal—is to ensure our survival as a free nation through the development of enlightened citizens.

Education must always be defined within the context of a particular society.

Social studies is fundamental to this primary purpose of schooling. It is the school subject most directly concerned with the study of civilization, the development of critical thinking and the improvement of society through enlightened political participation. While this responsibility falls partly on other school subjects, it is the social studies that assumes direct responsibility, because no one else on the teaching staff is better qualified and no other curriculum area is better organized to assume this task. The following scope and sequence design presents and represents a way of thinking about the social studies curriculum consistent with this responsibility.

Goals

Social studies is concerned with developing reflective, democratic citizenship within a global context, and includes the disciplines typically classified as belonging to the social and behavioral sciences as well as history, geography and content selected from law, philosophy and the humanities. It also includes those topics that focus on social problems, issues and controversies. The social studies is both single discipline and multidiscipline oriented, depending upon the topic being studied. The social studies addresses four educational goals:

- The development of enlightened democratic citizenship in order to participate effectively in local, state, national and international affairs
- The appreciation and understanding of our cultural heritage and its role in contemporary society
- The acquisition of academic knowledge and skills related to the study of the motives, actions and consequences of human beings as they live individually as well as in groups and societies in a variety of places and time settings; and the joy of learning about self, others and human history
- Learning "how to learn"—how to understand complex ideas and how to create new ideas.

All of these goals are equal in importance, for they reinforce each other. Thus, the goal of citizenship is supported by the goals of disciplined, academic study, and ongoing learning. Stated another way, the student should be able to:

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- Use reasoning processes in economic, political, social and personal decision making
- Appreciate and value the diversity and commonality of the human family throughout history
- Comprehend the vocabulary, logic and methodology of the several academic subject areas that make up the social studies
- Communicate ideas through speaking, listening, writing and the use of other symbols
- Use the social sciences, history, literature, social mathematics (statistics, probability, social indicators, data based management systems) and the fine arts to describe and explain social phenomena.

Most important, a thorough understanding of the social studies can provide for the development of perspective. Perspective is an understanding or wisdom gained by a temporal and spatial knowledge that transcends the present setting and allows one the courage to ask such questions as, What is the good society? What is the good person? What obligations do I have to the ideals and people of the past, present and future? What is the proper relationship between the individual and the state? How, and to what extent, should I be involved with people and institutions on this globe? Can our civilization endure? What values do we wish to preserve?

Program Scope: Major Curriculum Themes

The particular curriculum design suggested here is based upon seven themes that logically extend from the above stated goals. These themes appear in each grade level and constitute, in large measure, the nature of the program scope. The themes help define the program's scope to the extent that they present perspectives that allow students the temporal, spatial and cultural criteria so necessary for comprehension and rational action. To some degree, any delineation of major themes is arbitrary. While different themes may be emphasized at various grade levels, they should be included at every grade and may be presented in any coherent order.

With the above in mind, see Figure 1.

Cultural Heritage

The cultural heritage of a people is embodied in stories about their values, their hopes and dreams, and their fears and dilemmas. The major responsibility of the school is to transmit the cultural heritage to the next generation. This is accomplished by putting students in touch with history—the people, ideals, artifacts and dilemmas of the past that need to be part of our present and future.

Every human society (and group within larger modern societies) has particular patterns of behavior that make up its culture. A culture consists of language, tools, important documents, customs, social institutions, beliefs, rituals, games, attitudes, utensils, clothing, ornaments, works of art, religion and more. Within social groups, individuals learn accepted means of meeting their needs and coping with problems of living in groups. These ways of perceiving, thinking and behaving are part of their heritage.

Global Perspective

Notions of "global community," "spaceship earth," "the shrinking globe," and "global interdependence" abound in popular literature. Every society struggles with the ongoing conflict between the desire for independence and the realities of interdependence. The world is becoming more crowded, more interconnected, more volatile. There is the desire for peace but the preparation for war continues. What happens in the furthest corner of the world may affect us quickly.

Students need to understand the distinctions between political and cultural "maps." This distinction suggests that culture is not necessarily confined to political boundaries. Students must also understand the worldwide dynamic of the human, technological, and ideological milieu as culture is shared across the world. Interdependence demands that our perspective be global.

Political/Economic

One of the fundamental attributes of a citizen of the republic is the ability to function within its political and economic systems. This means the ability to make personal decisions and judge the decisions of others often with little time and incomplete information. From serving on local political action groups to understanding monetary and fiscal policy, students need experience in the disciplined study of economics and political science. Citizens need to become aware of their political and economic opportunities and obligations.

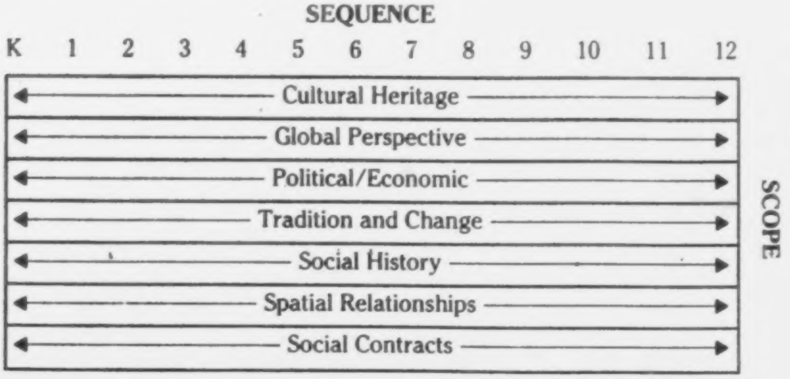
To a large extent, citizens still see their civic roles as public and their economic roles as private. We see all "civic" citizens as equal because of the one person one vote concept, but the "economic" citizen as unequal due to different standards of living. Within the republic, the citizen must understand the relationships between civic and economic justice and power, and work for the public as well as the private good.

Tradition and Change

People, events, tools, institutions and ideas change. History records the struggles of people and groups who favor change and those who oppose it. The rate of change is uneven among and within different cultures and societies, but change is continuous and the rate of change is accelerating.

As change accelerates, we must place greater importance on anticipating the future. Clearly, we cannot accurately predict the future, but we can envision various scenarios and be ready for more than one possibility. Futurists have developed a useful kit of processes for dealing with the future. These include cross-impact matrix, scenario writing, trend extrapolation, brainstorming and technological assessment.

Figure 1. Major Scope and Curriculum Themes



Important as change is in our lives, we must recognize that human experience is continuous and interrelated. Continuity and traditions are facts of life and provide life with meaning, beauty and truth. In some ways, "nothing new occurs under the sun." All persons, events, actions and change are the outcome of things that have gone before. We are inevitably a product of our past and in some ways restricted by it. Students should learn how change and continuity constantly influence their lives.

Social History

The need for equity, justice and a better reservoir of historical and contemporary evidence demands that we include in our study of the human family, women, minorities and the so-called ordinary people. Human values come to life through the stories of people who played many roles in the drama of history. For example, courage can be learned from the stories of children and justice can be taught using the songs and poetry of the downtrodden.

Ideas about work, sorrow and joy are to be found in letters and journals of many who are not "real" authors or authorities. Social history encourages the study of the past—through primary sources and personal accounts. When concerned with the study or process of history—doing history—the student will discover the texture and grace reported in those narratives that somehow have not found their way into full view in texts and other materials.

Spatial Relationships

The study of areal distribution, the examination of particular places and the delimitation of regions helps the student to understand how earth space is organized. People use similar earth spaces or areas in different ways. They line or interconnect the different areas with transportation and communication routes. They move themselves, messages, and goods and services over the routes. They conduct their governments and engage in various types of activities, such as religious or recreational, within particular spatial arrangements.

The discipline most involved with

spatial relationships is geography. Geography is concerned with understanding the location and spatial arrangements of items on the earth. Simply knowing the location or the spatial distribution, however, is not enough. Students also need to learn the causes and consequences of such spatial arrangements.

As part of this study, they need to develop a knowledge of the physical earth itself—its size, shape, movements and the materials and natural processes of its surface. They should learn to build mental-image maps of the spatial arrangements over the earth of different kinds of phenomena. This skill begins early and the mental maps increase in number and refinement with each year of maturity.

The study of geography not only includes people and almost all of their activities, but also the earth and earth processes. Consequently, geography links the social and the natural sciences, and provides for us the spatial perspective necessary in understanding culture and human behavior.

Social Contracts

The idea that one is part of a society also affirms the "signing" of a social contract with our fellow citizens. This contract outlines our public behavior and defines our privileges and obligations as citizens. In a sense, this contract provides the criteria for our ethical behavior from civility to jurisprudence. One must come to respect the full citizenship of those who are different, those who have different backgrounds and talents, and those who take unpopular positions on social issues.

Social contracts are not only signed by people as they approach the age of majority, they are also a real and necessary part of the society we call family, school, athletics, social clubs, etc. The social contract suggests that we are social and political at the same time, and it is crucial that within the democratic republic, citizens understand not only the contours of the contract but the fine print as well.

Program Sequence: Major Content Focus

Many social studies scope and sequence models recommend a spiral or expanding horizon content approach, starting with the immediate, familiar and concrete environment in the primary grades and moving outward to the more distant and abstract in high school. The design outlined in Figure 2 is a somewhat similar organizational pattern except that its content focus is organized on the basis of grade level clusters developed around the seven major curriculum themes.

> The important thing is that the content is taught and that it be current, accurate and comprehensive.

In organizing the curriculum within each grade level cluster, students and teachers are asked to address a series of broad content focus questions that allow for the gathering and integration of data from multiple sources, the development of convergent and divergent thinking skills[1] and the making of reasoned judgments about such findings.

The suggested questions can be used to construct content and identify key concepts and topics for the K–12 instructional program. Further, these questions can be used to encourage students and teachers to become active inquirers seeking to find answers or solutions, however tentative, to these questions, issues, concerns and topics.

The grade level clusters would be organized with the focus shown in Figure 2.

Again, within each of the grade level clusters, illustrative examples of questions are used to organize the curriculum. Naturally, many other questions could be posed and numerous related questions could be formulated within each of the broad question categories. The choice of questions to be used in selecting content is the responsibility of the local curriculum committee.

In the following section, the authors briefly identify key characteristics of learners at various grade levels and offer several illustrative examples of student activities to encourage active learning and skills development. We do not, then, answer questions like "Should Mexico or Latin America be taught in the fifth or sixth grade?" We believe that in truth it does not make much difference.

The important thing is that the content is taught and that it be current, accurate and comprehensive. Grade-level assignments of topics are important, as they provide for the elimination of gaps and overlaps in the scope and sequence, but a curriculum plan is a good deal more. A curriculum plan is fundamentally a way for teachers to communicate with each other and the larger community as well

Figure 2. Grade Level Clusters

Grade Level	Primary Grades (K–2)	Intermediate Grades (3–5)	Middle School Grades (6–8)	Secondary Grades (9–12)
Content Focus:	My Orientation to the World	Expanding My World Horizons	Viewing the World from Different Perspectives	Assuming Full Citizenship in a Changing World

THE LEARNER AND CURRICULUM CONTENT

Primary Students (Grades K–2)

Students in the primary grades bring to social studies classes a variety of previous experiences which form the foundations for learning and for their intellectual, social, emotional and physical growth. The social studies program at these grades should enable students to move from a largely egocentric view of the world and enable them to develop an understanding of their roles and responsibilities in their family, at school and in various social institutions and settings.

In these grades, it is important to provide a variety of meaningful first-hand, concrete learning experiences that draw upon experiences from the home, school, neighborhood and the world beyond. For example, opportunities should be provided that allow students to develop social participation skills through committee work, role playing, creative dramatics, greeting classroom visitors, classroom discussion and informal interviews; research skills may include the gathering and recording of information from various sources such as films, pictures, stories, music and field trips; the development of citizenship skills are learned through sharing, by accepting responsibility for their own actions through cooperative planning, making compromises, resolving conflicts and making decisions; and communication skills are enhanced through drawing, reading, writing, listening and speaking.

Within this grade level cluster, students need to have opportunities for individual as well as group learning activities. Appropriate to their maturity level, students should be introduced to concepts and values from the several social studies disciplines through varied concrete learning experiences that will lead to active citizenship participation. There should be numerous opportunities to celebrate and take pride in our heritage by focusing on state, national and ethnic holidays included in the social studies curriculum.

My Orientation to the World

Who am I?

What can I learn about me? What is expected of me?

What is a friend? How can I be friends with both girls and boys? What can we share? What games do I play?

How can I be a good citizen?

What responsibilities do I have at home, at school and in my neighborhood?

Why do we need rules at home, at school and in my neighborhood to limit what we do? What rights do I have?

How can I describe my environment at home, school and in my neighborhood? How do these environments change?

How have music and the arts influenced our environment?

What is a family? How are families alike? How are they different? What are the main functions of families?

From where did my family come? What family traditions and events do we celebrate in my family?

What are families like in other parts of the world? How can we describe them? What are some customs and traditions celebrated by families around the world? What are some words you know from other languages?

How can I meet my basic needs? What goods and services are available to me?

Why do some people have so much and others have so little? Is this fair?

How do I depend on others? How can I help others?

How can numbers help me make decisions?

How can numbers help me describe families, schools or neighborhoods?

Who are some community helpers? What are some jobs which can be done by women? by men? by either?

What can I do to help ensure peace at home, at school and in my neighborhood?

How has technology changed the way I live compared to the way my parents and grandparents lived when they were my age?

What social knowledge can we learn through classroom creative dramatics?

Intermediate Students (Grades 3–5)

The social studies curriculum for this grade level cluster provides an opportunity for interdisciplinary study of our community, state and nation, with attention given to our culture, environment, people, challenges and successes. By studying the community, state and nation, students have the opportunity to learn such concepts as diversity, environment, migration, urbanization, transportation, heritage, ethnicity, technology, beliefs, etc., as well as institutional variables such as family, government, economy and education in selected settings at various times and in different settings that provide foundations for ongoing learning.

Students should explore a variety of print and nonprint resources to learn about their cultural, geographic, economic, political and historical heritage. Most students also enjoy reading and studying the biographies of great and common women and men in various

geographical and historical settings. Children's literature, music and art provide opportunities to integrate social studies with other areas of the school program. Other excellent sources for data include field trips to museums, historic sites, local businesses, agricultural centers, governmental agencies and environmental areas.

Students in these grades need to have numerous activities, experiences and opportunities to refine and develop previously learned skills and to develop new learning skills, including inquiry and research skills from ever-widening sources to develop critical thinking and problem-solving abilities. Numerous opportunities for meaningful individualized, small group, and entire group instruction should be offered throughout the year so that students have the opportunity to develop knowledge and skills needed for productive living and learning.

Expanding My World Horizons

How do communities help people meet their basic needs? What goods and services are produced in our community and state?

What special features does our community and state have to make them unique and special?

How do communities show diversity? How are communities similar?

What are the characteristics of a good community? A good citizen?

How are components of culture reflected in our community, state and nation?

How does our community, state and nation rely on other parts of the world?

What are some important historical documents in our society? How have they influenced our past and our present way of life?

How have women and men influenced our history and the reporting and writing of history?

What are some examples of the contributions of ethnic and cultural groups in our community, state and nation?

What are some special geographic features of our landscape?

How has technology changed the way we live?

How can numeric data help us understand changes in history and in our present environment?

What changes are likely to take place in our country and the world in the 21st century?

How do ideas, people and products circulate in our community, state and nation? How do people in our region interact with people in other regions?

How has the past shaped our traditions, customs, heritage, attitudes and values?

How did the present come to be as we know it today?

How do laws provide for political, economic and social stability and control in our daily lives?

Why is there so much political, economic and social instability in the world?

What are some ways to resolve conflicts between individuals, groups and nations?

Middle School Students (Grades 6–8)

Middle school students are at an age of transition that includes rapid physical growth, intellectual development from the concrete to the more abstract, and social and emotional change as they move from childhood to adolescence. They begin to see themselves and the world around them in different ways. The social studies curriculum for these students is critical because students begin to form their own values, life views, and modes of living, and begin to come to grips with the many complexities of adolescence and adulthood. The development of a positive self-concept is critical because strong peer pressure is a major influence in their lives. They need to develop a healthy respect for self and others in our pluralistic world.

It is important that the social studies curriculum include topics which engage the student's interest as well as extend her or his context for learning to regions of the earth in order to gain a more global perspective. Students can begin to understand situations from other perspectives and recognize the right of others to express differing points of view. Learning activities need to be varied, due to the short attention span of students; should include both physical and social involvement, such as role playing and simulations; and should involve both inquiry and didactic teaching and learning.

It is also useful to integrate social studies content with art, music, literature, science, mathematics and environmental studies. Interdisciplinary content and multiteam teaching are becoming more commonplace at these grades. The use of a variety of media can serve as sources of both motivation and information. They assist students in making connections and linkages to their world of here and now and to the rest of the world.

Viewing the World from Different Perspectives

How can content from the social studies provide a perspective when we study events, institutions and people around the world?

Where can I find and how can I use statistical information about social institutions?

What is culture? How are cultural

regions similar and how are they different? What are some issues, crises and opportunities facing each culture region at present? How might they be resolved?

What is the social nature of human beings? How do leaders exercise power and authority? How have leaders shaped the course of history? How have common people contributed to our well-being?

What values are important to our culture? How are these values used in personal and national policy making?

How can we use numeric data to make decisions in our personal lives?

How does the perception we have of ourselves as individuals and as a nation influence the way we behave toward one another?

What is the nature of the earth and its environment today?

How have world regions become increasingly specialized in the production of certain goods and thereby forming systems of economic networks?

What is the nature of our democratic government at the local, state and national levels?

What legal rights and responsibilities do individuals and groups have in our country and in other countries?

How has the United States responded to the many challenges facing our country throughout its history?

What challenges does our nation face in the coming years? How might the nation respond?

How has technology influenced our lifestyles, values and expectations? How might technology shape our lives in the 21st century? How has technology changed the lives of people around the world? How has technology changed the ways persons and nations view the world?

How might peace be achieved within and among the cultures of the world?

High School Students (Grades 9–12)

Social studies in grades 9–12 should include the opportunity to study in greater depth (1) our national heritage through the study of history and government, (2) other nations, cultures and environments of the Western and non-Western world by studying content and concepts from economics, history, geography and anthropology; and (3) other social science studies' through synoptic, behavioral or analytic disciplines. High school students should be provided with opportunities to develop and apply previously learned academic and social participation skills to new content by examining critical issues from different perspectives.

Social studies instruction should include both descriptive (content) and procedural (methodology) knowledge of the several social sciences disciplines. Critical and creative thinking and problem-solving skills should be emphasized to enable students to gather and weigh data from several sources, make judgments, and formulate conclusions (however tentative). These skills are basic to the development of enlightened citizens who will ensure our survival as a nation. Classroom methodology needs to be varied to account for different learning styles, abilities, talents and interests of the students.

Questions need to be posed that will truly promote classroom discussion and allow for the development of inductive, deductive and evaluative thinking skills. Active learning opportunities, including scenario-building for individuals and groups should be emphasized. Ideally, students will be required to take a social studies course during each of their years in high school and the opportunity for instruction in courses that focus on synoptic, behavioral and analytic studies. A wide range of instructional materials should be available for student and teacher reference to promote learning to learn and life-long education.

Assuming Full Citizenship in a Changing World

How do the histories and cultures of various Western and non-Western societies contribute to our understanding of the world today?

What are the major philosophical, religious, economic and political ideas of our society? How do they help to explain a worldview?

What are important values held by various nations and cultures throughout the world?

How have the forces of nationalism, industrialism, imperialism, militarism, revolution, technology and others brought about changes in the attitudes, values and actions of people in both the Western and non-Western world?

What has democracy contributed to the world? What are some characteristics of other government and economic systems?

How do people actively participate in political and economic processes and decision making in order to ensure political and economic justice?

How do the media, government and private industry use statistical data to inform the public?

What happens when different groups of people come in contact with each other? How have cultural differences led to conflict? How has cultural diffusion been of benefit to humankind?

What are the major social, political, economic, cultural and technological changes that have occurred in the United States and elsewhere since

World War II? How have these changes impacted on us as individuals, as a nation and as members of the global community of humankind?

How might these changes influence our values and lifestyles?

What will our planet Earth be like in the coming years and decades?

How might civil wars and international conflicts be eliminated? How might world peace be achieved?

What moral, ethical and legal obligations do we have toward other human beings and our environment?

Why has there been tension and conflict between and among various minority groups? How have rising expectations of minority groups brought about change? What challenges remain to be resolved?

How have changes in societies' expectations, values and lifestyles influenced the role of women and the opportunities available to them at present and in the coming years?

A Word About Skill Development

In the social studies curriculum, we believe that thinking and reasoning are the abilities toward which we should move students. It is further suggested that reasoning is a function of a combination of skill competencies. It is this combination or network of skills that becomes critical in curriculum development.

Three assumptions are advanced here. First, skills should not be sequenced. Second, the same set or network of skills should be taught each year, K–12. Third, any skill list, including this one, is somewhat arbitrary.

What is important here is not the skill list per se, but the interrelatedness of the skills within the network. Thus, the skills delineated in the following network are to be taught in ever-increasing levels of sophistication from kindergarten through high school. (See Figure 3.)

The umbrella of the "integrated skills network" is thinking and reasoning. While logic and ethics in Western thought emphasize inductive, deductive and analogical reasoning modes, the network also makes use of other creative-thinking processes. The following components of foundation skills, processing skills and operations suggest the scope of the skill network.

Foundation skills are basic to the performance of more complex processes and skills. All thinking and reasoning skills build on the ability to observe, classify, order and place items in space. *Processing skills* are those relied upon to give meaning to data. They build upon the foundation skills and are used in combination with each other. Basic *social studies operations* or activity categories become a key focus of skills work in the curriculum.

> Finally, it must be stated, and restated, that curriculum is fundamentally a matter of communication.

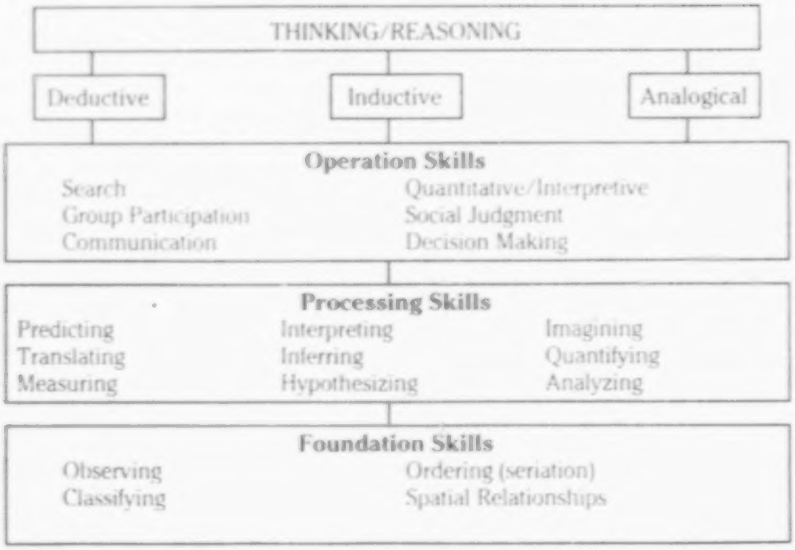
It is important to realize that operations *are* activities that draw on the foundation and processing skills. Thus, operations are the organized activities and strategies that can help develop and apply thinking. In a very real sense, we need to build organized, rather than disconnected applications of reasoning processes. At all levels, students should be developing their ability to work with these basic operations.

Conclusion

Because of the growth in the creation of information and knowledge, an intriguing concept has now been applied to the area of knowing. That concept is "half-life." For example, the half-life of an engineering degree is now said to be four years. What is the half-life of a newly developed curriculum for the social studies? It is not very long, and so we need, as never before, to place additional emphasis upon professional growth, communication among colleagues and the development of a school climate that will facilitate curriculum development. These components of development include a sustainable and ongoing program of curriculum implementation, evaluation, revision and staff development that will allow teachers, administrators, students and community members the opportunity to talk about the curriculum in precise ways.

This would mean that the responsibili-

Figure 3. An Integrated Skills Network



ty for the knowledge, skills and values taught within the K–12 social studies program would be placed more squarely on the local staff—a staff with the mandate and resources (empowerment) to carry out the goal of continual development of the curricular and instructional programs. Further, attention would be placed upon the relationship of the school with the larger community, as students should have opportunities to serve their community, and learn firsthand about its social, political and economic cultures.

Finally, it must be stated, and restated, that curriculum is fundamentally a matter of communication. Thus, the real purpose of a scope and sequence design is to serve as a grammar or metalanguage that professionals can use as they talk about their craft. In a sense, a scope and sequence can be arbitrary. What cannot be arbitrary, nor without structure, is the common language of the profession that allows for criticism, freedom and growth within a community of scholars.

Notes

This article is a further reflection of work on a curriculum guide recently completed by the authors and a task force of Wisconsin educators including William Dunwiddie, Phil Ferguson, George Meeks, Gail Moran, Art Rumpf, Norris Sanders, Mark Shug, Jim Snavely, Catherine Warnecke and Dean Zimmerman.

Readers will note that little attention has been given to the placement of skills within the K–12 sequence. The authors believe that the same network of skills should be used to engage students at all grade levels.

[1] Illustrative examples of synoptic studies include such courses as religious studies, humanities and global studies, examples of behavioral studies include sociology, ethnic studies and anthropology, examples of analytic studies include law-related education, economics and social mathematics. ❑

Michael Hartoonian is Supervisor of Social Studies Education for the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction; Margaret Laughlin is an Associate Professor in Education at the University of Wisconsin-Green Bay.

Rolla Tryon on Organizing Instruction

Stanley P. Wronski

Rolla M. Tryon's major publication was *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*, Volume XI of the 16-volume Report of the Commission on the Social Studies issued in the mid-1930s. In it he never uses the term scope and sequence, although he cites numerous examples of courses of study used in various states and school districts. One is "the pioneer effort" of the Denver schools, which in 1926 had these topics for the first four grades:

Grade 1—Home life
Grade 2—Community life
Grade 3—Indian life; child life in foreign lands
Grade 4—Colonial life; Westward movement

The remaining middle and junior high school grades in Denver contained "unified" social studies. But in grades 10–12 "no attempt was made to unify" the curriculum; it consisted of "separate courses in world history, American history, American problems, economics and world relations."

Tryon's conception of the nature of the social studies can be inferred by his endorsement of the recommendation from the influential 1916 Bulletin, *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, that instruction be organized "not on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil."

If there was any focal point to Tryon's concerns about the social studies curriculum, it was his detailed analysis of various ways of *organizing* curricular content. His treatment of the pros and cons of such organizational schemes as separate subjects, correlation, integration and fusion has almost a contemporary ring:

> As long as material from the field of social sciences exists in the schools the quest for the most desirable adjustment between the subjects composing the field will continue. The day of isolation is probably gone in theory, even though it still remains in practice. The future will probably see more and more emphasis on the interrelations of the social sciences. This, of course, does not mean that history, political science, economics, and sociology will necessarily disappear as independent subjects of study in the schools. It simply means that as independent subjects each will be expected to live other than a hermitic life.

Through Tryon's views on organizing social studies content, we can gain a worthwhile perspective on the nature and *scope* of the social studies. His treatment of *sequence*, on the other hand, deserves its fate of banishment to educational oblivion.

Stanley P. Wronski is a Professor Emeritus of Michigan State University.

A Curriculum for Democratic Citizenship

Shirley H. Engle and Anna Ochoa

The following article is adapted from "A Curriculum for Democratic Citizenship," Chapter IV of the forthcoming book *Social Studies for a Democracy: An Alternative View* by Shirley H. Engle and Anna Ochoa.

In that work, Chapter I deals with the implications of the democratic idea for citizenship education. It notes that citizenship education in a democracy must be different from citizenship education in autocracy: rather than demanding a passive acceptance of authority, democracies must produce citizens who have a reasoned commitment to democracy and the capacity for criticism, questioning, decision making and active participation in public affairs.

Chapter II analyzes the unique characteristics of democratic citizenship.

Chapter III analyzes and appraises the possible contribution to democratic citizenship education of seven different, and in some ways incongruous, conceptions of citizenship education as follows:

1. The exposition of facts and generalizations (or what is presumed to be the facts) selected from the social sciences and history to be held in memory.
2. The exposition of a particular version of these facts and generalizations to the exclusion of others for purposes of indoctrination.
3. The exposition of facts and generalizations as in 2 and 3 above but organized around topics rather than disciplines.
4. The critical study and questioning of the facts and generalizations presented as the true facts in the several disciplines.
5. The study of social sciences and history by replication of disciplined study.
6. The focus of the study of disciplines on the solution of social problems, past and/or present, to which the disciplines relate.
7. The direct study of major social problems.

The first three conceptions listed are generally approached in the expository mode, via textbook and teacher-talk, and they generally have as their expected end-product knowledge of specific facts and generalizations, usually to be memorized. In stark contrast, the latter four conceptions listed are ordinarily approached in the hypothetical mode and immediate and unquestioned correct answers are not expected. Instead, the goal is more general knowledge of the nature of disciplines and disciplined thought, of the problems that confront disciplined study, and of the problems that confront society together with intellectual skills needed to study and resolve such problems.

The curriculum proposed moves away from dependence on exposition and memorization to the hypothetical study of problems—past and present, both within the disciplines and within the society at large—as being the more appropriate way to prepare citizens who, in a democracy, are expected to be active decision makers.

Chapter IV, an excerpt of which follows, is a response to the educational needs of democratic citizens, identified in Chapter II.

Introduction and Background

The curriculum that we envision for the citizens of a democracy moves away from conventional implementations of the social studies, based on conceptions 1, 2 and 3, described above, toward a more open-ended and problem-centered treatment of the social studies more closely related to conceptions 4, 5, 6 and 7, described above.

In short, we would move away from the unqualified exposition to students of facts taken as truths, whether embodied in the social sciences or elsewhere, toward the confrontation of young citizens with the problems contained in the disciplines and in the unfolding of society—past, present and future.

We see the problems of democracy as they have developed historically and the problems of democratic societies today as the appropriate locus for the truly disciplined study of democracy. We see participation in problem solving as the appropriate instructional genre for the nurture of citizens who will respect democracy and who will be able to make the decisions needed for its continued development. We do not see democracy as a way of life that can be transmitted unthinkingly to students, but one that is learned as it is questioned, thought about, criticized, practiced and improved.

The key to a curriculum purporting to prepare citizens of a democracy is its capacity to encourage young citizens to think about and make considered decisions; its content is never merely remembered without being thought about and utilized. This suggests that a proposed curriculum must provide a more probing treatment of problems, ideas, values and materials, covering fewer topics than usual, but going deeper into each, and ultimately leading to some worthwhile conclusions.

In the light of this general purpose—and believing, as we do, that improvement in the ability of young citizens to make intelligent and socially responsible decisions is the ultimate goal of the social studies, and also believing with Dewey (1929, pp. 187–188) and Bruner (1965, p. 94), that the only way to learn to resolve

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problems is to engage in problem solving—we suggest the following guidelines for social studies curriculum development:

1. *The curriculum should be confrontational rather than strictly expository.* It should confront students with important questions and problems for which answers are not readily available. The study of problems needs to be open ended, in the hypothetical mode (Engle 1972; Longstreet 1978), and without the pressure for closure on a correct answer.[1]

2. *The curriculum should be highly selective.* The topics to be chosen should be those having the greatest potential for encouraging and supporting thinking, and even controversy, about an important social problem. Traditional topics for which no such connection can be conceived should be dropped from the curriculum.[2]

3. ***Each unit of instruction should be organized around an important problem in society that is to be studied to the greatest depth possible, given the circumstances of schooling, as well as with as much independence from the other problems selected for study as is reasonable.*** Problems may take the form of judgments of the "rightness" or "wrongness" of actions followed about important matters in the past and in the present; or they may take the form of a search for a solution, however tentative, of pressing social problems. Variations of the first form of problem would be the verification of different versions of past events or the construction from raw data of one's own version of these events. In some cases, the very discovery within a general state of public uneasiness or concern of what the problem is, and why it exists, is in itself an important social insight.

4. ***The curriculum should utilize relatively large quantities of data from a variety of sources such as history, the social sciences, literature and journalism, as well as (and possibly most important) from students' first-hand experiences.*** In all likelihood, far greater quantities of materials would be used than is ordinarily possible under ground-covering techniques. The information sought, however, would be utilized as evidence in making decisions and would not require memorization.

From these guidelines, a number of implications flow. The organization of the curriculum into units around a small number of highly selected topics focusing on problems suggests the virtual abandonment, or considerable modification, of survey courses such as those typically found dealing with United States history, that students encounter two and possibly three times during their school years—courses covering essentially the same ground with equal superficiality. It suggests considerable modification of survey courses in geography and the other social sciences, which frequently require the memorization of the abstract ideas that frame a discipline, without sharing with students the problems within the discipline or the relationship of the discipline, if any, to the problems of society. If survey courses are to be utilized at all, they need to be slowed down. That is, major social problems need to be pursued in depth even in a survey course, which means that the current time allocation for survey courses would have to be extended, and the often repetitious coverage of such courses avoided.

In addition, the study of the social sciences needs to be approached with an attitude of tentativeness; even economists, notwithstanding their air of certainty, have difficulty in agreeing on the meaning of any economic event. Problems that students themselves experience in their own studies and investigations are also worthy sources for curriculum development.

Focusing on problems should allow greater flexibility in the selection and sequencing of study. To accommodate the study of newly developing problems and jettison those no longer significant would require that the curricular selection of social problems be an ongoing process. Chronology and the abstract framework of disciplines, the usual basis for sequencing social studies curricula, would not necessarily be the best way to handle the problem of sequence and certainly should not be the only way. An equally important approach might be that of currency or perceived immediate utility. Searching history for the background of a recognized social problem may be a more effective way to open the study and utilization of history than to move through history from beginning to end with no other reason than to follow a time sequence to be held in memory.

For instance, must we wait to study the problem of terrorism, which is on everybody's mind at the time this is being written, until we reach its temporal place in history, when it will be treated superficially (if ever), in a survey of U.S. or, possibly, world history?

Terrorism, which is being considered today in a state of great emotionalism and along with many half-truths, does in fact have a long history. It has taken many different forms. It has served many different purposes. It has been used by many different peoples including, at times, some Americans. It has been used for what are perceived to be honorable purposes as well as for dishonorable ones. It has been utilized in history by the oppressed to escape their oppressors, by the oppressors to keep the oppressed in check, and by religious fanatics to destroy those seen as enemies. Would not the balanced study of this problem be better dealt with now when it is on everybody's mind than to wait until its time comes, if ever, in the survey of U.S. or world history? The topical approach focused on problems affords greater opportunity for teachers and students to take charge of the curriculum and to make reasonable modifications that would render the curriculum more relevant to the real world.

Another implication of this approach is the inappropriateness of basing the assessment of achievement on the measurement of isolated bits of information that can be recalled on short answer tests. More appropriate assessment of achievement would attempt to deal with the degree of comprehension of problems, the ability to gather and interpret evidence, and mastery of the intellectual processes needed in the resolution of problems.

In some respects, the curriculum we envision is a modest enough change from the traditional curriculum. For instance, heavy reliance will continue to be placed on United States and world history and geography. However, the study of history and geography will be conducted in a very special way. The study will be less concerned with memorization. Instead, it will be brought to focus on problems, past and present, which students will be encouraged and helped to think about and also to reach decisions about. Furthermore, the usual content of these subjects will be broadened and sometimes combined with content from other disciplines and from other fields of study to accomplish the broad purpose of being fully relevant to society and its problems. But with all this, we believe the curriculum will still be recognized as good geography and good history, or possibly, better geography and better history.

In other respects the curriculum envisioned will be a daring departure from the traditional. Innovations will be suggested in response to the problem of how the social studies can be made more directly and immediately relevant to the real world of the citizen.

Curriculum for Democratic Citizenship

Believing that the educational needs of citizens in a democracy should determine the content of the social studies curriculum, we suggest the following curriculum strands, each of which will be developed in some detail.[3]

1. *Environmental Studies.* The study of the relationship between human beings and the earth and the problems confronted in developing the best possible relationship between them.

We do not see democracy as a way of life that can be transmitted unthinkingly to students, but one that is learned as it is questioned, thought about, criticized, practiced and improved.

2. *Institutional Studies.* The study of the full range of social institutions of the United States, of their origins and the problems that were overcome in their development and also the problems that attend their further development.

3. *Cultural Studies.* The study of selected world cultures and of the problems of living more effectively in a world characterized by greater interdependence and vast cultural diversity.

4. *Social Problems.* The sustained study in depth of a few major social problems.

5. *Special Problems in Citizenship.* An in-depth study of three intellectual problems that are basic to intelligent decision making in a democracy as follows:

- How can citizens judge the dependability of the information they must utilize in decision making?
- How can citizens judge the reliability of the media by which information is communicated?
- How can citizens decide between the competing values that are at stake in making decisions?

6. *Citizen Internship.* Regular participation in a civic activity.

7. *Electives.*

8. *The Hidden Curriculum.*

Environmental Studies

Environmental studies is the study of problems surrounding human use of the environment. The study should be focused, in each of its parts, on a problem that arises out of this relationship. This strand should be organized around a listing of the important environmental problems; the list should be revised from time to time to correspond to current realities and concerns.

At this writing, for example, the problem of what to do about nuclear waste and nuclear fallout from testing nuclear weapons may well be our most pressing environmental problem locally, nationally and worldwide. But there are other issues of almost equal weight such as the problem of what to do about industrial toxic wastes; the rapidly growing global shortage of potable water; the destruction of the rain forest and swamp lands so essential to ultimate survival on the earth; the growing shortage of viable agricultural soils and related shortages of food that confront the peoples of the earth;[4] the extinction by industrialization of many plant and animal forms and the consequent loss of genetic materials useful to science in the further development of the earth's resources; or, to cite a more exotic problem that might be of immediate interest to third graders, what to do about the whales.

This list could be extended many times. The questions will change from time to time as science discovers new truths about the earth, as technology invents new ways to utilize the earth, and as people develop new ways to relate to one another. Still, it is to such a list of problems that environmental studies should continually relate. The goal is that young citizens will not only come to understand the various ramifications of the environmental problem being studied, but that they will come to appreciate the seriousness of the problem and enlist in doing something sensible about it.

Obviously geography can play an important role in furnishing the materials for thinking about such problems as those listed above. However, this is not the study of geography for its own sake, but geographic information brought immediately to use in thinking about a significant problem. Remembering the products of the nations of the world is of little benefit and is quickly forgotten unless one puts this information to use in thinking about a serious problem such as that faced currently by the United States concerning its unfavorable balance of trade. Furthermore, such a list will probably be out of date by the time it is memorized.

Progression from grade to grade may be based on selecting problems for higher grade levels that are more difficult or more comprehensive than problems studied at lower grade levels. For example, what to do about whales is not really a simple problem; it can be expanded to encompass the ecological crisis of the whole universe. But it is not as complex as the problem of how to reconcile the seeming need of advancing nations for technological development on a large scale, and the tendency of those same nations to produce unmanageable quantities of toxic waste that is spread over the lands and waters of the world.

In the process of assigning problems for study to particular grade levels, we should studiously avoid the fiction that children cannot deal with problems at any acceptable level until they have a vast background of memorized knowledge of geography. Such memorized knowledge, superficially learned because it is not used immediately, is quickly forgotten and students are no more ready to deal with problems than they were in the first place. We will have only wasted precious time and the considerable intellectual resources of even our youngest students.

Terrorism, which is being considered today in a state of great emotionalism and along with many half-truths, does in fact have a long history.

To the extent that the discipline of geography will be the primary source of information for studying environmental problems, it must be expanded to include elements of geology, astronomy, and possibly paleontology, as well as some aspects of biology, ecology, physical anthropology and climatology. Information should be readily sought, wherever it may reside, that will throw light on our environmental problems.

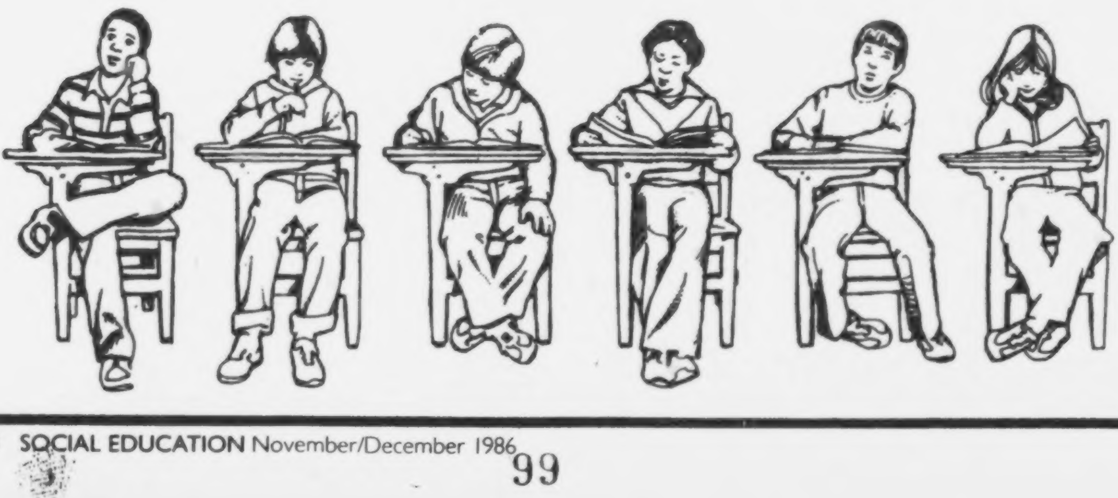
Institutional Studies

Institutional studies probes the origins and the present circumstances of the broad range of social institutions of the United States, including the study of the problems that were met as these institutions developed and the problems that are being faced in their further development. The study is an attempt to move beyond the superficial, one-event-after-another understanding of our democracy exhibited by so many citizens, and to achieve instead a more fundamental understanding of our most important institutions and the problems that confront them. It is intended to involve the young citizen in a meaningful defense and improvement of democratic institutions, somewhat along the lines suggested more than 40 years ago by Harry Elmer Barnes:

> The real friends of the American way of life are those who recognize and fearlessly reveal the obvious danger signals that are evident on every side, and who seek to eliminate the threat to our social order while there is time and opportunity. . . . The real menace to our civilization is to be found in those who insist on living in a "fools paradise" of smug conceit and compliancy, conducting a sort of "sit down strike" against intelligence and insisting that nothing is wrong in the best of all possible worlds. (Barnes 1942, p. viv)

The study of U.S. social institutions might be roughly divided into the following categories:

1. Institutions that express and protect the fundamental freedom of the United States, the rights and beliefs that underlie all institutional arrangements
2. Economic institutions



3. Political institutions
4. Institutions that define our relationship to other peoples of the world
5. Institutions that exist primarily in the private sector as the family, religious groups and social groups of all kinds.

The study of institutions would focus at all times on the hard questions that confront institutional development in the United States today—always, of course, in the light of institutional history and the nation's democratic aspirations. By hard questions, we mean questions that are actually problems because there is no certain and immediately obvious answer and because decisions must be made, if tentatively, about them. They may be open issues in the society at the time they are studied.

For instance, in the case of fundamental rights and beliefs (to which the study of history of the American Revolutionary Period would contribute much useful information), such questions as the following might be used to give focus to the study: What does it mean to be free? What does it mean to have freedom of one's person or freedom of one's home? What does it mean to have freedom of the press, or freedom of speech, or freedom of religion? Which of these freedoms are the most basic or important? Are there limits to the exercise of any of these freedoms? Who has the right to limit one's freedom? For which of these freedoms, if any, would you lay down your life? In what ways, if any, has the nature of our freedoms changed since the Revolutionary Period?

Do you think all citizens of the United States are equally free? Are the poor as free as the rich? Are minority groups as free as the majority? Are the uneducated as free as the educated? To whom or what would you turn for an enumeration of your freedoms? How can we decide when our freedoms are being violated? What do we really mean when we say we are the "land of the free"? What do we mean when we say that we will defend the freedom for which our forefathers fought and died? Would the Founding Fathers likely be concerned about the state of freedom in the United States today?

What are the most bothersome problems of freedom before the country today? (A selected list might include the conflict between the idea of religious freedom and compulsory school prayer; the conflict between freedom of the press and censorship in the guise of protecting national security;[6] the conflict between the idea that citizens may do what they want with their property and the right of the citizen to be protected from toxic waste dumped over our land and water by industrial corporations and others; and the conflict over whether it is constitutional to establish quotas to insure that the hiring and firing practices of employers do not discriminate against the members of any minority groups.) How do you think the founders would have resolved such problems? How do you think they should be resolved today?

By hard questions, we mean questions that are actually problems because there is no certain and immediately obvious answer and because decisions must be made, if tentatively, about them.

In the case of economic institutions (to which the study of the history of the Post-Revolutionary Period would make important contributions), such questions as the following might be the focus: What are the most basic economic institutions in the United States? Which of the following has had most to do with the development of these institutions: the hard work of individuals wanting to improve their economic lot; an open land of rich natural resources: the help of the government in building major industries, such as railroads, waterways, air transport, and irrigation dams and canals; provision by the government of the infrastructure of the nation's industry, such as highways and postal service; foreign investors; immigration; a seemly insatiable market in Europe for exports; governmental regulation of business practices and trade; wars and/or avoidance of international entanglements; or free public education? If all, in what order of importance? What are the relationships between them? To what extent, if at all, is it a misreading of U.S. history to propose that the role of government in the economy should be minimized?

Is economic disharmony or conflict good or bad in each of the following cases: the struggle between organized labor and employer for the control of industry; the struggle between those who believe in unlimited free enterprise and those who believe the government should regulate industry to protect the rights of labor and the consumer; and conflict between different sections of the country for economic advantage?

How are we to meet the economic problems that beset our country today, for example, unprecedented levels of unemployment and poverty at the same time that many are better off than ever before; a growing unfavorable balance of trade; increasing indebtedness, both public and private; agricultural bankruptcy; declining efficiency of basic industries like steel, electronics and automobiles in the face of stiff foreign competition; the problem of how to control, if at all, the activities of multinational corporations; a circular economy that rotates between boom and bust; neglect of the public sector, which includes schools, roads, public parks, and welfare; and an unprecedented problem of pollution.

In a similar vein, the problems that attend the other groups of institutions would need to be identified and used as a guide for study. For instance, an important question that might be raised as we study political institutions would be, what should we do, if anything, in the light of our history as a democracy to change a governing system in which it now costs a single congressman or senator millions of dollars, paid by those who expect favors from the government in exchange for their support, to run for office (see *The Washington Spectator*, February 15, 1986, and *Harper's*, July 1982)? What should we do, if anything, to change a law-making system in which highly paid lobbyists, who outnumber congressmen in Washington by nearly 20 to 1, play such a decisive role in determining legislation? (See *Time*, March 3, 1986, among many other places, for information on lobbying in Washington.) Equally compelling questions could no doubt be identified upon which to focus the study of other groups of our national institutions.

Obviously United States history is a primary source of information for the study of such questions as those posed above. This is true despite the importance of current periodical material suggested. Some will say that this approach presents nothing really new, that institutional studies is just a new name for the study of United States history. But those who say this have missed the critical point. The study of the period of the American Revolution for instance, takes on an entirely different nature when it is focused on the resolution of such a question as Oliver and Newmann posed in their Public Issues Series unit on the American Revolution (Oliver and Newmann 1967) when they asked "Who had the best grounds for refusing to obey their legally constituted government, the Minutemen at Concord or the blacks at Pettus Bridge?"

The question posed that is very close to events today as well as Revolutionary times requires a far more serious and meaningful study of history than is ordinarily the case in survey courses in United States history. Furthermore, the skill called into play is that of thinking rather than just remembering.

But, if United States history is used to explore questions such as those posed above, it needs to be a very different kind of history—a history both wide and deep. It needs to encompass myriads of facts and not just a selected few. It needs to honestly expose the problems of interpretation and the problems of verification that confront the historian. It needs to afford the opportunity to consider alternative versions of history.

In short, it should provide young citizens with the opportunity to think about the history of our democracy and to think about its problems in the light of that history. The continuing purpose would be to enlist young citizens in working to preserve and improve the democratic institutions they have inherited from their elders, and to do this with the fullest possible understanding of the origins and problems of those institutions.

Obviously this kind of historical treatment cannot be the ordinary textbook variety. It needs to include both broader and deeper versions of events. Quite aside from all the other problems that beset textbook publication, textbook versions of events are ordinarily too narrow in scope, too shallow in their treatment of events, too parsimonious in providing detail and too preoccupied with merely chronicling a highly select set of events to be remembered. It is not this kind of mastery of events that the active democratic citizen needs, but a much deeper and more involved grasp of the meaning of democratic institutions useful to the challenges of citizenship. If textbooks are to be used at all, generous references should be made to content written by historians writing as historians rather than as textbook writers.

But, if United States history is used to explore questions such as those posed above, it will need to be a very different kind of history.

Not only will the historical content used in this curriculum be different than that ordinarily used because it will probe more deeply into the background and problems of social institutions, but, even more important, the way in which that content is used will be starkly different from that ordinarily displayed by the mere exposition of textbook material. The purpose of study is more to make factual and moral judgments on events than merely to remember them.

As Henry Steele Commanger has brilliantly argued in his essay "Should Historians Make Moral Judgments?" (Commanger 1966), history is not so much to be remembered as to be judged. Quite aside from the argument that has ranged among historians since history was first written by Herodotus, Thucydides, Livy and Plutarch as to whether historians pass judgment on the events they record, the usefulness of historical writing to the citizens comes in their efforts to pass moral judgment on the events in history. Students of social institutions are best instructed by historical writings when they place themselves in the position of passing moral judgment on the events in history. As Carl Becker once argued, "Every man must be his own historian" (Becker 1936), or as Commanger puts it, "The assumption behind the expectation that the historian should make our moral judgment for us is that the reader has no mind of his own, nor moral standard, no capacity to exercise judgment. . . . Are those mature enough to read serious history really so obtuse that they cannot draw conclusions from the facts that are submitted to them?" (Commanger 1966, p. 93).

Since the making of moral judgments is the most basic of all functions of the citizens of a democracy, we would continually cast students in the role of making judgments about events rather than merely remembering them. Therefore such questions as the following are appropriate in the serious study of social institutions: Was the violence and terror perpetrated on loyalists during the Revolution justified in the cause of freedom? Was the forced ejection of Native Americans from lands they had occupied for centuries right or wrong? Was there a better way to have dealt with the conflict between the Indians and the settlers? Were John Brown and his followers at Harper's Ferry justified in killing people in their effort to free the slaves? Were the oppressive measures taken to keep workers from organizing and striking at Haymarket Square right or wrong? How might the conflict between workers and their employers have been more fairly settled? Did the people out of work during the Great Depression deserve help from the government?

By no means to be ignored in the study of social institutions in-depth is the contribution of great works of literature, art, music and journalism. Great humanistic works are more likely than historians to

Edgar Wesley and the Definition of Social Studies

S. Samuel Shermis

In 1974, the late Edgar Wesley—teacher, professor, author, a founder of the National Council for the Social Studies in 1921 and activist in the social studies movement for more than half a century—visited James Barth and me at Purdue University. Edgar was willing to commit his memories to tape and in two days we were able to record enough to create a 150-page typescript, which proved to be an extremely valuable document—especially because Wesley commented at length on his durable definition of the social studies.

The definition—that the social studies was the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes—had appeared in his famous textbook *Teaching Social Studies in the High School.* Within a short period, it was regarded by many in the profession as definitive. It was also to become the bane of his later existence. As Wesley expressed to us, his definition—which he admitted was a simplification and only part of the truth—was most unfortunately taken literally. Social studies, he told us, was erroneously interpreted to be *nothing more* than the concepts of the social sciences, watered down for use in public school classrooms.

Expanding on this, Wesley's memories went back to 1921 when he, Earle and Harold Rugg, Edgar Dawson, Howard Wilson, Mary Kelty and others created NCSS. In 1934, when he was selected president-elect, "we really clarified and almost agreed on the function of the NCSS." The NCSS, President Howard Wilson argued at that time, "is not to promote the teaching of economics. It's not the promotion of the teaching [of] sociology. And it's certainly not the promotion of teaching [of] history."

What then, according to Wesley speaking in 1974, was the social studies? The social studies arises out of the need to help young people integrate human experience and human knowledge. The social studies—far from being a promiscuous and unintegrated collection of information and data—was created to help humans cope with the historically new and bewildering social problems ushered in by the industrial revolution. In Wesley's own words, taken from the third edition of his text,

> The teacher who can skillfully and judiciously assist the students to reach intelligent attitudes and decisions on controversial issues is performing not only an educative but a social function of the greatest significance.

S. Samuel Shermis is a Professor in the Department of Education at Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.

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capture the broad meaning of events and to emphasize the moral issues that are embodied in them. Historians are often too engrossed in establishing the facts objectively, and little time is left for them to speculate about the broad meaning of the facts. The authors of great humanistic works are concerned about the facts, to be sure, but they are more concerned with passing moral judgments on history and on grasping the meaning they might hold for the future. Through subjective reasoning they are able to discover truths that are obscure to the more scientific approach of the historian. By engaging in creative imagination they are able to bring fresh points of view to the meaning of events. Great breakthroughs in thought occur in this way as, for instance, the writings of Thomas Paine and James Otis on democracy. Democracy was born as an idea, one that was imagined before it became a faltering reality. Many of our social problems today require such imagination for their solution.

Great humanistic works are likely to have a moral focus. The humanist is apt to take sides, to cast a judgment on what in history is most valuable, on what is good or on needs to be changed in human society. Great humanistic works afford models for the citizen in the making of such moral judgments that are really at the heart of every social problem. These models are indeed an important resource for citizenship education. In a social studies curriculum dedicated to learning the intellectual skills of problem solving, the great humanistic works should be taken as an integral part of the content.

For instance, how more succinctly could one begin the study of the institution surrounding human slavery in the United States than to read Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* or Stephen Crane's *The Red Badge of Courage*? Or, if a somewhat more scholarly version of history is preferred, Bruce Catton's *A Stillness at Appomatox*? How better could one be introduced to the crises in U.S. economic and political institutions and to the issues that arose during the Depression than by reading John Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*?

American literature, art, music and journalism are rich sources of moral commentary on the progress of our social institutions. From the likes of Washington Irving, James Fenimore Cooper and Thomas Paine in colonial times to modern writers such as Gore Vidal, William L. Shirer, Saul Bellows and James Michener, people of letters have had much to say about the moral quality of our institutions. It is obvious that a well-stocked school library is an inestimably valuable resource for in-depth study of our social institutions.

Cultural Studies

Cultural studies involve the study of differing cultures; of why people of different regions, historical backgrounds, nationalities and ethnic groups grow up differently, of how we can live usefully in a world of differing cultures; of how, despite cultural differences, peoples of varying cultures share profound human similarities; or of how we turn cultural differences into assets for bettering the living conditions of people within our own country and the world.

Questions upon which cultural studies may focus include: Why do peoples of different nations, regions, historical backgrounds, etc., grow up differently, behave in different ways, believe differently? Can you accept the reasonableness of these differences? Do you know of any people whose beliefs and ways of behaving are so different from your own that you cannot accept the reasonableness of their difference? In what respects? Can you identify similarities between these people and yourself?

Of the major cultural groups in the world, for which ones do you have most difficulty accepting differences? For which do you have least difficulty accepting differences? Suppose a cultural group exhibits behavior that flies in the face of your most cherished beliefs. How should you behave toward them? Suppose they are fellow citizens of the United States. How should you behave toward them?

With what cultural groups in the world could the people of the United States most easily identify, possibly thinking of them as allies or friends? What should the policy of the United States be toward such cultures? What should our policy be toward groups with which we find it difficult or impossible to identify?

What do you think are the most pressing problems facing the world's people today? How would you rank the following problems in importance: fear of nuclear war; religious differences; pollution of the world's environment; insufficient food for the world's starving peoples; restrictions on the free exchange of goods throughout the world? Taking cultural differences into account, where is the point that the resolutions of these problems might best begin?

It is fairly obvious that world history will be a major source of information for answering such questions, but it should be equally obvious that the study of world history from a textbook for the sole purpose of remembering the chronology of events in the history of nations will not be adequate. The history utilized must present a much more sweeping view of the world—the way it has been treated by such historians as Arnold Toynbee, Will and Ariel Durant, H.G. Wells and William McNeill. Students will need to be helped and encouraged to read history, not to memorize it, but rather to use it to throw a light on important questions or even to enjoy it. History should be read in the manner suggested by the noted English historian Christopher Hill, who said, "Any serious history deals with questions. . . . The narrative can be rearranged but the true originality of the historian lies in identifying questions that seem new to us. . . . This would help to explain why history has to be rewritten in every generation" (Hill 1983, 947–48).

Obvious, too, is the usefulness of materials from anthropology and sociology to promote an understanding of cultural differences. Optimally a historical study of cultural differences could pause at some point to study in-depth, as the anthropologist would study them, a few selected cultures for a clearer idea of how cultural differences develop. The same argument that was presented earlier for the study of institutions can be advanced here for including materials from the humanities in any serious study of cultures.

Social Problems

Social problems include the study in-depth of one major social problem in each year of the social studies program, grades 3 through 10.[5] The purpose of this strand in the curriculum is threefold.

1. To give young citizens a foot up in knowledge about the major problems confronting society, such as the worldwide environmental crises, the threat of nuclear war, the underemployment of human resources and the resultant widespread poverty, and to help students more clearly understand the issues at stake in the problems studied, provide them with bodies of information that relate to the problem, and provide them with the opportunity to do some systematic thinking about possible solutions with respect to the problem.
2. To give students experience in dealing with major social problems much as intelligent adults are expected to deal with them. When they graduate into adulthood, they will not only be informed about them but will have already been enlisted in the effort to work out solutions.
3. To emphasize the relevance of other work under progress in the social studies by studying a major social problem each year, rather than at the end of the social studies program. Thus students will be able to see more clearly why they are studying environmental, institutional and cultural problems and should approach these strands in the curriculum with greater purpose. It will provide the glue that connects all parts of the social studies program. It will no longer be quite so necessary to lamely claim that we are studying these subjects because we will need them someday when we are adults.

Because we believe so strongly that the ability to make intelligent decisions in the resolution of social problems is the ultimate goal of the social studies—and because we believe with Bruner, who said, "I have never seen anybody improve in the art and technique of inquiry by any means other than engaging in inquiry" (Bruner 1965, 94), and accept the corollary that problem-solving ability is best learned by engaging in problem solving—we are led to the conclusion that problem solving, in all of its varieties, should be omnipresent in the social studies curriculum. We are also led to conclude that the major social concerns of the society should be likewise omnipresent in the curriculum, for these are the concerns around which all of the curriculum will continually coalesce. These concerns feed into and are constantly fed by everything else we do in the curriculum. They are not matters to be left to some distant future.

To meet, in so far as possible, all of these purposes, we propose that one major social problem be studied for an extended period in a school, in all of the depth that we can muster, on one occasion each year in each social studies classroom at every grade level.

Great strength would accrue to such an effort if all classes could be engaged in the study in the same time frame with the principal of the school serving as the leader. Tremendous strength would be added to the study if other departments in the school—especially science, language arts and fine arts—could be enlisted in the study, as well as parents and the community at large. Full advantage should be taken of the adult resources in the community such as adults with special expertise in the area of concern being studied, adult periodical collections in public libraries and elsewhere, community groups with special interest in the area of concern, and public interest groups and citizens and parents willing to talk with youngsters about their concerns.

The study in-depth each year of one major social problem should provide young citizens with the sobering experience of studying something in school about which the whole community, as well as their teachers, are genuinely concerned. We would risk the possibility that such an experience would set a serious tone for more thoughtful engagement by young citizens in all of the work, both within and outside the social studies, that they are pursuing in school.

A one-year, one-day-a-week internship in some useful social or civic enterprise is a natural progression from thinking about to actually working on resolving social problems as outlined above. The internship would be looked upon as a transition experience from neophyte to adult citizenship. Through the internship, young citizens upon graduation would already be involved in what might well become their life specialty as a citizen. Useful volunteer work, without pay or credit but required for graduation, can be sought with a service, political, civic or other interest group. Internees would be supervised by a teacher in the school with whom they would also meet regularly to ponder and appraise their experiences.

Special Studies in Citizenship

The explosion of knowledge, the parallel explosion of the means of communication together with the unsettling of values due to an extraordinary acceleration of change, have heaped extraordinary responsibilities on citizens to know when they are well informed and to know what values are at stake. Paradoxical as it may seem, it is more difficult today to know and to know that what one is being told is really true than it was 50 years ago when the quantity of knowledge available for absorption into the mind was much less, and when the value choices to be made were fewer and far simpler.

Likewise the mushrooming of the means of communication has opened up tremendous opportunities to become better informed but just as tremendous possibilities of having our thoughts controlled by charlatans of all kinds—politicians, religious leaders, spokespersons of special interests and the like who try to control what we think by manipulating our opinions through the media. Thus Marcos in the Philippines, despite 20 years of the most unimaginable corrupt and brutal leadership, almost won reelection because he controlled Philippine radio and television stations while his reform-minded opposition could only shout to the crowds within their hearing on street corners. While the successes of U.S. institutions have been made possible in part by a free press, today the news media is, to a considerable extent, controlled by the rich. The viewpoint of the poor is difficult to hear.

Likewise in the face of an unprecedented rate of change, traditional values are being called into question. The whole civil rights movement, which began in the 1960s, is a case in point. What was seen as equitable treatment of blacks and other minorities became a very controversial matter. In some cases, traditional values, held innocently in the past, now seem to be in conflict—for instance, freedom of the press and secrecy in the conduct of governmental business in the name of national security. The number of such conflicts between values have multiplied many times in recent years.

These conditions impress upon us the need to help young citizens of a democracy—whose opinions are supposed to be informed, well reasoned, and responsive to time-honored values—to wade through the maze of information and conflicting value claims that are thrust upon them from every side, to learn to sort out the wheat from the chaff. Our purpose would not be to tell them what to think but rather to help them develop the understanding and skill to decide for themselves what is and what is not credible.

Three groups of questions would guide this study. The first group, *epistemological* in nature, would ask such questions as: What is knowledge? What does it mean to say that one knows? What is evidence? What is proof? Are there different ways of knowing?" How does proof differ under different ways of knowing? Which way of knowing is most dependable? How can one determine the dependability of claims to knowledge of a scholar in some field of study, a witness to an event, an expert in some line of endeavor, a textbook account, a proponent of some religious doctrine, a political speaker, a news report, an editorial? What is dependable evidence as proof in each case?

As Henry Steele Commanger has brilliantly argued in his essay "Should Historians Make Moral Judgments?" history is not so much to be remembered as to be judged.

The second group, having to do with *communications*, would ask such questions as: What are the various purposes of the media—for example to inform, to weigh alternatives, to persuade, to exhort? How can we judge the dependability of what we read, or hear, or are told in the newspaper, over the radio, over television, in a textbook, in a political speech and the like? How can one detect the use of media to distort or misrepresent the truth? In a political campaign how does one decide who and what to believe?

The third group, *values*, would raise such questions as: What do I value most? Are there good reasons for valuing highly each of the values dear to me? How can I know that what I value are good values? Can I arrange my values from the most important to those of less importance? What do I do when two or more of my values seem to be in conflict?

Questions like these need to be raised from time to time in many subjects that students study in school, in science, mathematics and language arts as well as in the social studies. Good teaching directed toward asking these kinds of meaningful questions could hardly be conducted without some awareness on the part of teachers and students of the nature of dependable knowledge and of the nature of evidence of proof. Memoritor teaching, which we reject, tends to sweep such questions under the rug. Students are supposed to remember the correct, but not necessarily the true, answer and they are never to question why. They are simply supposed to believe what they are told.

But even with teaching throughout the curriculum that emphasizes a questioning and thoughtful response by students to the information presented to them, a special need still exists to study the problem of knowing and valuing, independently and in-depth, if students are to learn to cope with today's world of instant communication and a rapidly changing knowledge base.

Studies have indicated that children spend as much time each day watching television as they spend in school. Many educators recognize that television is a tremendous force in the child's learning, a force that may have either positive or negative consequences.[7] The student may become a critical viewer or a patsy to be exploited by anyone who has a good "Madison Avenue" line. Students need help with this problem just as they need help in becoming more critical textbook readers and more discerning citizens.

The best of all worlds in this connection would be for the social studies department—in coordination with other departments in the school equally interested in developing more critical thinking, listening, reading, viewing and valuing skills—to provide a jointly sponsored course in *knowing, communication* and *valuing* to be offered approximately midway through the middle school.

Electives

The purpose of the electives strand would be to afford the opportunity for students to study in some depth the methods by which social scientists, including historians, arrive at dependable knowledge about human affairs. Electives would include one-year courses in economics, political science, sociology, anthropology and journalism. The emphasis would be placed on the nature of the discipline rather than on its findings, although the nature of a discipline might be illustrated by allusion to some of its more important findings or key assumptions. There would be the opportunity to engage in some laboratory practice in each discipline as, for instance, the writing of a short historical account, the conduct of a simple sociological survey, the study of a group as an anthropologist would study it, or the reporting of a significant event. All students would be expected and encouraged but not required to complete one such elective.

The Hidden Curriculum

If commitment to democratic principles is to be an outcome of the education of citizens, it is of paramount importance that the school offer a good example of respect for democracy. There are two aspects of setting such a good example in the school. The most obvious is that the school itself must be governed democratically. We lose our case for democracy when students can easily perceive that the school is run autocratically. School rules, like laws, should be fair and reasonable and students should be helped to understand the reasons for them. They should have a voice in the enactment of school rules. Governance should never be arbitrary or blatantly coercive. The school should never underestimate the willingness of students to participate in their own governance. As in adult society, the rights of the minority in the school setting should be faithfully respected.

The school should never underestimate the willingness of students to participate in their own governance.

Democracy is also exemplified in the school by the respect shown by teachers for intellectual honesty. Democratic teaching should be carried on in the full light of day with full respect for the canons of objectivity suggested above. And full respect must be given to the intelligence of students to think for themselves. Pressure tactics, being less than candid, talking down to students, or using the classroom to propagandize are all completely out of character with democracy and must never be employed if students are expected to develop a deep commitment to democracy. Teachers must exhibit in their own behavior not only respect for the intelligence of the students but also faith in the method of intelligence and reason.

Notes

[1] The argument for the use of the hypothetical mode over the expository in the study of social content was most succinctly presented by Jerome Bruner in *Knowing: Essays for the Left Hand* (New York: Atheneum, 1965), 81–96. This idea was largely responsible for spawning the whole New Social Studies movement.

[2] Support for the in-depth study of a few topics over the necessarily superficial coverage of many topics is lent by the following authors. Alfred North Whitehead, who, in *Aims of Education* (New York: Macmillan, 1929), 1–2, warned of the uselessness and, above all, the harmful effects, "of receiving into the mind," inert ideas, that is, ideas that are received into the mind without being utilized or tested or thrown into fresh combinations. Gunnar Myrdal in the appendix of his book, *The American Dilemma* (New York: Harper and Bro., 1944), 1052–1053, observed that to narrate history straight without stopping to consider the assumptions, implied or explicit, and the qualifiers chosen by the historians without considering other scholarly versions of the events being described is tantamount to indoctrination. Richard H. Brown, historian at the Newberry Library, Director of the Amherst Project, published a number of units in which he demonstrated the feasibility of studying a few significant episodes by what he called "postholing," and studying them in depth as an alternative to the survey course in United States history. many of the projects in the New Social Studies movement of the 1960s and 1970s were based on the principle of in-depth study of a relatively small number of topics; recently, Fred M. Newmann in "Priorities for the Future: Toward a Common Agenda," *Social Education* 50 (April/May 1986): 240–250, recognized the replacement of coverage with in-depth study as a primary need in the field.

[3] The authors were greatly influenced in their choice of strands by the ideas of Harry S. Broudy, B. Othanel Smith and Joe R. Burnett who, in *Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1964), 159–274, suggested a classification of knowledge for purposes of instruction similar in some respects to the one being proposed in this work.

[4] According to Peter Drucker, in an article written for a recent issue of *Foreign Affairs* (reported in *Time Magazine*, April 7, 1986, 48), there is no longer a problem of the number of people to be fed outstripping the food supply. The problem lies rather in the economy of financial flow. This illustrates how quickly the nature of social problems may change.

[5] The authors were somewhat influenced in proposing the strands by the Broudy, Smith and Burnett work cited in Note 3. A similar proposal was made in this work (Ibid., 231–233.) The seminal work on thinking about social problems by H. Bruce Raup, George E. Axtelle, Kenneth D. Benne and B. Othanel Smith, entitled *The Improvement of Practical Intelligence: The Central Task of Education* (New York: Harper and Bro., 1943).

[6] An entire issue of the *Center Magazine* has been devoted to the problem of intelligence and secrecy in an open society; see Vol. XIX, No. 2, March/April 1986.

[7] In two recent books, *Teaching As a Conserving Activity* (1979) and *The Disappearance of Childhood* (1982) (both New York: Delacorte Press), Neil Postman has pointed out the deleterious effects of mass media in the education of children.

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Shirley H. Engle is a Professor Emeritus of Education at Indiana University, where he was the Associate Dean for Advanced Studies. Anna Ochoa is an Associate Professor of Social Studies Education at Indiana.

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H. Gordon Hullfish's Process-Based Curriculum

William R. Fernekes

H. Gordon Hullfish, for many years a distinguished professor of education at Ohio State University, offered valuable commentary on social studies curricular design. A long-time member of the Progressive Education Association and an early member of the board of directors of *The Social Frontier*, Hullfish was a staunch advocate of curricular reform emphasizing the integration of formal schooling with timely social problems and trends. Strongly influenced by John Dewey and Boyd Bode, he consistently promoted a process-based orientation to learning and educational change.

During the 1930s, Hullfish contributed two chapters to *The Educational Frontier*, a major work of progressive educators edited by William Heard Kilpatrick. Hullfish argued that five major tasks awaited schools seeking to reorganize along progressive lines.

1. It is reasonable to expect the school progressively to orient the student in the life of which he is a part.
2. It is reasonable to expect the school to provide situations to lead the student progressively to direct his action by an integrated and unified attitude to which he increasingly gives his allegiance.
3. It is reasonable to expect the school to encourage the development of independent interests, intellectual, esthetic, or practical, on the part of its students.
4. It is reasonable to expect the school to set up an environment in which all of its members, through active participation in its organization and control, may move progressively to a more complete appreciation of the deeper significance of the democratic way of life.
5. It is reasonable, finally, to expect the school to face frankly the fact that it will not contribute significantly to the reconstruction of the social process until it launches a positive program of experimentation directed toward the reconstruction of its own procedures.[1]

Embedded in the foregoing five points are clear implications for the social studies curriculum. The notion that schools will orient students to their surrounding environment strongly supports the principle of an "expanding environments" design for the elementary curriculum. The progressive attempt to have pupils direct their actions via an integrated and unified attitude presaged Hullfish's later work on reflective thought.[2]

In this work, he and co-author Philip G. Smith articulated a philosophical basis for reflective thought as the most appropriate method for education in a democracy. Examination of NCSS position statements related to scope and sequence since the early 1960s reveals a strong advocacy for the development of critical thinking skills, an aim central to Hullfish's educational ethos.

The advocacy of social participation is a key element in the final two recommendations from Hullfish's five-point plan. He claimed that "the school has not been sensitive to the changes taking place in the socio-economic situation,"[3] and therefore had failed to educate pupils to deal with the growth of world interdependence and the implications of one's social conduct on others in society. As a remedy, Hullfish stated that schools should "assume responsibility for assisting students, at all age levels, to work out through their relations with their fellows self-directive, inner standards of conduct and behavior."[4]

To accomplish this aim, educators had to conduct a "continuing analysis of the social order for the purpose of discovering the educational needs which it set."[5] Based on these ideas, a social studies curriculum would focus on the reconstruction of experience, with knowledge being organized around emergent social problems and with students being offered significant opportunities for social participation in democratic processes.

In short, the curriculum "must inevitably take form as the interests and problems of the student are pursued,"[6] including units on "the home" and "other social institutions," as well as "differing periods of civilization" and "the intensive study of differing movements in American life."[7]

The consistent emphasis that Hullfish maintained on process-oriented curricula is highlighted in a statement from his 1961 work on reflective thought.

> Learning, the reconstruction of experience, is always a matter of fitting and refitting into a meaningful whole that which is known and that which seems likely but which must remain uncertain until all of the pieces are brought together.[8]

As a result, the curriculum should be organized to permit "whatever is being studied to illuminate problems of the student's world."[9]

The fidelity to progressive educational premises evident in Hullfish's scholarship suggests that current attempts to develop social studies scope and sequence models should emphasize (1) the changing nature of social conditions and institutions, (2) a commitment to the active participation of the school community in developing democratic processes, and (3) the process of reflective thought as the central method in educating future citizens. Hullfish would have it no other way.

Notes

[1] H. Gordon Hullfish, "The School: Its Task and Administration—I," in William H. Kilpatrick, ed., *The Educational Frontier* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933), 163.

[2] H. Gordon Hullfish and Philip G. Smith, *Reflective Thinking: The Method of Education* (New York: Dodd, Mead, and Co., 1961).

[3] H. Gordon Hullfish, "The School: Its Task and Administration—II," in William H. Kilpatrick, ed., *The Educational Frontier* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933), 195.

[4] Ibid., 199.

[5] Ibid., 198.

[6] Ibid., 206.

[7] Ibid., 206.

[8] Hullfish and Smith, *Reflective Thinking: The Method of Education*, 206.

[9] Ibid., 207.

William R. Fernekes is a teacher of social studies at Hunterdon Central High School, Flemington, New Jersey.

Social Education for Social Transformation

William B. Stanley and Jack L. Nelson

A democratic civic culture, and the active participation of individuals in the continuing improvement of the society, is the basic rationale for this proposed social education curriculum. This rationale assumes that people are capable of self-governance, that a democratic society must be open to criticism and divergent viewpoints, that schooling has a responsibility to be consistent with social ideals, and that certain values will be of central focus in social improvement. These values include justice and equality, which become grounding points for a social education whose rationale incorporates a concern for social transformation. There are some further assumptions that underlie this rationale and deserve articulation.

First, schools have not been and never will be neutral in regard to social, political, economic and cultural values. These values are the basis for schooling itself, and are often expressed in broad statements of educational goals. In a society like the United States, the development of a democratic civic culture is among these broad educational aims; this requires a populace with the knowledge and wisdom to participate actively in the continuing improvement of the society and presumes that schools can provide the essential conditions for this learning.

For schools, and thus for social education, those essential conditions include the consideration of social problems and potential solutions, the development of critical thinking and ethical decision making, the freedom to explore controversial topics, and full access to the means by which students can actively practice social participation.

Second, societies are constantly in a process of transformation. The single principle on which all social sciences, humanities and sciences seem to agree is that things always change; transformation is fundamental (Besag and Nelson 1984; Wexler 1985). The disagreements occur in assessing the nature of transformation—which changes lead to progress, which to regression, and which to the fragile stability that many people seek.

Schools have not and never will be neutral in regard to social, political, economic and cultural values.

The underlying values of justice and equality provide, for our society, the basic criteria against which change can be assessed. Social education that provides learning for social transformation is consistent with the assumption of social change. Most "mainstream" or traditional social education rationales agree that democratic principles are basic, but the rationales tend to be backward-looking, static in orientation and highly supportive of the status quo. This severely limits consideration of change or transformation, and holds suspect potential social improvements that seem to deviate from standard ideas. If the current society or any society were perfect, the status quo would be an ideal; instead, social problems deserve wide exploration to find improvements that lead toward increased justice and equality. Social criticism, then, should be seen as one means to fulfill the need for social transformation and should be an important element in social education.

Third, social transformation through social education does not require the abolition of all traditional "transmission" functions of social studies. The primary framework of values that identify the "good society," and the basic values of justice and equality need to be transmitted to the young. It would be a purpose of this social education scope and sequence to develop a firm and thoughtful attachment to these core values as necessary to improving the democratic civic culture. The attachment would not be blind devotion, since disputes over social issues raise different views of what justice and equality mean in practice, but the framing of those debates would require agreement on the core values as worthy criteria. It is this attachment to basic civic values that motivates people to actively participate in the society.

Fourth, schools can and should be used to promote progressive social change (Stanley 1985). The schools have long been used to instill national loyalty, to prepare for war, to develop skills for business, to prepare "good citizens," to separate individuals into differential roles in the society and to serve the interests of select groups in the society.

Pursuing social transformation predicated on values of justice and equality would represent a shift in emphases, but not in the basic nature of education. The social transformation proposed would aim to serve the interests of the widest number of people within the democratic culture, addressing issues of individual, local, national and global importance. Redressing the needs of the disadvantaged, increasing human rights conditions and stimulating environmental improvements are examples of possible foci. Although it is clear that the schools could not have unilateral power to transform society, they are a significant element in the consideration of which changes constitute progress, and they play a key role

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in the development of ideas among the new generations.

A final assumption is concerned with social education itself. It is probably impossible to reach consensus on a single rationale for social education because there are a number of widely divergent views available; and because it is logically inconsistent to presume that one rationale and its scope and sequence are so comprehensive or compelling that it should be imposed. Imposition of a particular static scope and sequence on a field that assumes change and that advocates debate on social issues would be an enormous anomaly (Engle 1977). The vitality of social education would be threatened, and one would wonder at its stated purposes of critical thinking. Thus, this rationale and scope and sequence is offered as a possible approach. We think it has merit, but requires analysis, comparison, skepticism and critical judgment—as should any of those proposed.

This assumption about the nature of social education implies that significant changes in the traditional curriculum would require significant changes in teaching materials, teacher education, inservice education, and other aspects (Apple and Teitelbaum 1985; Giroux 1985). That is healthy, we believe, as similar changes in science and math education helped to revitalize those fields in schools. We also believe that the service that NCSS should provide is to encourage the debate by pointing the field in new directions rather than restating the already entrenched views. To do otherwise would represent stagnation of the field. It is in this context that this proposal is submitted.

This rationale is an optimistic view of the potentials for humans, their societies and their schools. The idea of social transformation by thoughtful, ethically based, responsible and critical examination of social problems and active participation in developing a continually improving society is one that can inspire social educators and their students.

Definitions and Goals

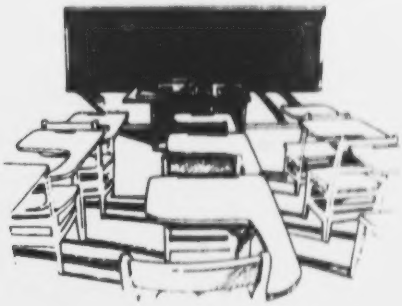
We prefer to use the term social education rather than social studies, as it recognizes the broad complex scope of social learning. It has become a cliche but a true one, that most of our social learning does not take place in schools, and even in schools a great deal of social learning (perhaps most) occurs outside the formal curriculum studied in social education classes. But whether one uses the term social education or social studies, we need to expand the definition beyond the focus on citizenship education as *the* primary concern of the field. While citizenship education is *a* major concern, people function in a number of other significant life roles aside from their relationship to the local, state and federal government, e.g., as family members, as consumers and producers and as individuals, to name the most obvious and important ones.

Pursuing social transformation predicated on values of justice and equality would represent a shift in emphases, but not in the basic nature of education.

Each of these might involve social interactions, ethics, aesthetics, creativity, decision making, and perseverance, the bulk of which can have little or nothing to do with what normally passes for citizenship education. Finally, every individual should develop an awareness of global issues and the ability to make informed decisions regarding them. Much of this activity is unrelated to a specific citizenship role. For those reasons, even the formal curriculum of social education, must be more broadly construed than citizenship education.

Furthermore, the term citizenship is often used in a rather narrow and technical way. This technical preoccupation with learning specific skills to achieve specified instructional objectives fails to address the need for a more comprehensive reflective competence in a democratic society. For example, one cannot prescribe in advance all the instructional outcomes related to attempts to resolve problems of social justice (Cherryholmes 1978). Indeed, much that is involved in these kinds of competencies (e.g., dispositions, reflection) probably cannot be taught directly, but students can learn it, given sufficient and appropriate opportunities. Social education must provide educational opportunities to develop the critical practical competence to participate in a democratic society (Newmann 1975; Kennedy 1981; Whitson 1985).

Social transformation is defined as the continuing improvement of the society by applying social criticism and ethical decision making to social issues, and using the values of justice and equality as grounds for assessing the direction of social change that should be pursued.



Criticism refers to judging with knowledge and reason. It is both positive and negative. Its goal is to illuminate issues, pose alternative views, consider divergent evidence, use large-scale ethical criteria, and arrive at refined ideas for social improvement. It must be clear that criticism is a process; it is dramatically different from complaining, cynicism, pessimism or nihilism in that it posits a positive view of what can be achieved in human societies.

Social education for social transformation, therefore, has the goals of

1. Developing a firm and thoughtful attachment to the core values, primarily justice and equality, of a democratic civic culture
2. Assisting students in understanding social and global issues and in the utilization of critical thinking based upon ethical derivatives from the values of justice and equality
3. Developing motivation to actively participate in the improvement of society
4. Assuring that teachers and students have the freedom to examine as wide a variety of topics and viewpoints as possible in exploring social and global improvement
5. Encouraging students to consider and develop specific proposals for progressive social change.

Knowledge

Knowledge is problematical, rather than precise and predetermined. Although it might be easier to believe that we have precise and absolute knowledge that we can simply transmit through schooling, such is not the case. There are significant intellectual debates about the nature, value basis and operation of knowledge in society, and students should examine those debates. Knowledge is a social and ideological phenomenon and should be seen as a subject of study in social education (Edwards 1979; Foucault 1980; Freire 1970; Habermas 1971; Sharp 1980).

There is an unfortunate tendency in current social studies work to perceive knowledge as something to be imposed in school and then tested to assure that students have accepted the imposition. That is inconsistent with the concept of critical thinking, and inconsistent with the ideas of social education for social transformation. One of the goals of this proposal is that students undertake the study of knowledge and ideologies (the study of ideas, as well as the study of dominance) as social issues. Knowledge should also be studied through the variety of skills needed to create, identify, process, express and utilize it. Knowledge is also different from data or information. Data represent bits and pieces, the material of insights and possible knowledge, but not knowledge itself. Knowledge is socially constructed and interpreted, not given and objective.

Transformative social education not only utilizes traditional sources of data from the humanities and social sciences, the sciences, the arts and from social issues themselves, but also subjects those data to criticism. Students and teachers need to develop sufficient competence in traditional forms of data to be able to examine them critically—to become intellectually skeptical of the data and its sources. Knowledge needs to be understood as an orientation, or worldview, subject to critical evaluation and reconsideration. It is an integrated filter through which bits of information about the social world come to be understood. Social education for social transformation would have a goal of assisting in the development and criticism of knowledge in society to provide students the opportunity to examine different views of knowledge and the ideologies that support them. This process would require a related goal of understanding forms of knowledge that have gained social acceptability over time in order to examine those forms.

Democratic Values and Beliefs

Goals related to core values of a democratic civic culture are indicated above. A democratic civic culture depends upon an informed and motivated populace who share a commitment to a continually improving society. The criterial values we propose are justice and equality, and our goal is to develop a firm and thoughtful attachment to them. A consistent goal related to democratic values is the development of critical thinking among the populace. Democratic civic culture requires continual revision and improvement; critical thinking and ethical decision making which leads to active social participation are processes through which social transformation can take place. These are dynamic rather than static processes.

Skills

This proposal sees skills as integrated parts of the process of knowledge development rather than as discrete and specific categories. The development and criticism of knowledge, as suggested above, requires the use of simple and sophisticated skills like reading, writing, speaking, listening, assessing evidence, observing, categorizing, analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating and applying. The development of these skills occurs as they are used and modified.

Skills may be taught apart from content, but they may not be learned, or, if learned, they may have very narrow applicability (Cornbleth 1985). It is possible, even desirable, to identify and categorize skills of value in social education in order to understand the kinds of skills needed, but that does not mean that one must teach them in isolation as if the skills were not related to the issues under study. This proposal presents skills as integrated in the development and criticism of knowledge and social issues. It is a more holistic approach than that of behavioral or performance-based education.

The recent recognition in Chicago that Mastery Learning had produced memorization of very specific skills and tasks related to reading, but that students who had mastered these specific skills still could not read and comprehend, supports the idea that skills need development in the context of the content of the curriculum, not as specific and narrow acts. It is our goal in skills development to have students utilize and refine them as avenues to accomplishing the larger goals identified in the initial goals statement above.

Defining a Scope and Sequence

Because this approach to social education advocates that students engage in criticism and participation, it would be inconsistent to insist that all students receive identical information structured to suit grade levels. Rather, we believe that the processes of critical thinking, ethical decision making and social participation necessarily should be practiced in schools according to the levels of maturity of the students. Thus, the sequence proposed is only illustrative. The categories indicate by broad grade levels the expected development.

Primary Grades K–3

THEME: Self-identity and concern for others, leading to development of the concept of interdependence.

CONTENT

☐ *information about each student*
  - likes, dislikes
  - I, mine, your, friends, groups, family
  - common experiences
  - uncommon, individual experiences
  - how am I the same, how am I different?

☐ *growing up*
  - in another society
  - in another time period
  - in a more disadvantaged situation
  - in large and small families
  - with responsibilities for others (people, animals, health, etc.)

☐ *today in class; yesterday; tomorrow*
  - individual and group
  - what was good and not-so-good
  - what we would prefer

☐ *exploring ideas of fairness*
  - in class
  - in life
  - in stories

☐ *exploring myths, customs, symbols, common bonds, religions*
  - of this society
  - of other contemporary societies
  - of one or more ancient societies

☐ *developing a sense of self and respect for others in testing the ideas of interdependence*
  - in families
  - in school
  - in the local environment
  - in other societies
  - in the global environment

☐ *understanding roles and purposes of local institutions and individuals* (police, post office, etc.) *and comparing them to institutions in the past and in other societies*

☐ *considering other needs of local community, e.g., work, play, food, shelter, services, personal development*

☐ *considering other ways of organizing class, school, community*

☐ *evaluating fairness and equal treatment*

Grades 4–6

THEME: Observations and ideas

CONTENT:

☐ *observing*
  - other people, other things
  - other places and other times (vicarious)
  - local government and other institutions

☐ *keeping track of observations*

☐ *assessing differences, similarities in observations*

☐ *recognizing differing values*

☐ *testing experiences against observations of others as expressed in stories, books, films, etc.*

☐ *making judgments of fairness, equality, equity*

☐ *examining social issues*
  - in local community
  - in state, region
  - in nation
  - in world

☐ *organizing ideas, especially*
  - important ideas in other times and places
  - ideas that did not gain favor in society
  - highly divergent ideas in science and society, examining why
  - social changes resulting from changes in ideas

☐ *traditional categories of knowledge: philosophy, history, social sciences, science, humanities*

☐ *what writers say, what speakers say*

☐ *developing a critical sense in evaluating evidence*
- developing and testing hypotheses
- identifying and understanding differing views
- judging views in terms of differing ethics
- judging views in terms of justice, equality

☐ *taking responsibility for views and actions*
☐ *examining specific social issues in terms of ethics*

Grades 7–9
THEME: Testing ideas, refining ethical ideology
CONTENT:

☐ *examining criteria*
☐ *considering ideologies*
- ideas and their sources
- political economy of ideas
- political geography of ideas
- examination of historic examples of ideologies
- logic, reasoning, alternative views
- ideological dominance and repression
- cultural and ideological differences
- roots of ideologies
- the nature of our culture as compared to others

☐ *meanings and messages*
- media examination
- text analysis
- historic document study
- ways of knowing, different conceptions of truth

☐ *discourse development*
- analysis of language, language theory
- concern for ideas of others
- justice and equality
- improving reading, writing, speaking, listening
- discourse, science, and social science

☐ *examination of selected social problems*
- defining significant social issues
- developing hypotheses
- reconsidering ethical criteria
- identifying and evaluating evidence
- testing hypotheses
- drawing tentative conclusions
- proposing potential social improvements
- examining contrasting viewpoints
- selecting avenues for social participation

☐ *taking responsibilities for views and actions*
☐ *social participation activities*

Grades 10–12
THEME: Refining critical thinking; proposals for change; social participation
CONTENT:

☐ *reviewing ideas from previous social education work*
- interdependence
- responsibility
- ethics
- ideologies
- nature, sources and utilization of knowledge
- traditional forms of knowledge and their critics
- contributions of history and the social sciences

☐ *developing and reviewing process skills*
- ethical reasoning
- discourse/discussion responsibilities
- conducting research
- social criticism
- critical thinking; decision making
- social participation activities

☐ *examining identified significant social issues*
- local
- national
- global

☐ *considering alternative futures and "relevant utopias" based on ethical justification for social transformation*
☐ *proposing ideas for social improvement rooted in justice and equality*
☐ *developing interdependent social participation*
☐ *active work, over a period of time, in social improvement activities*
☐ *evaluating social education*

Afterword

As we have tried to indicate in this proposal, it is impractical and dysfunctional to attempt to specify a single best scope and sequence for the social education curriculum. We lack consensus on a rationale for social education and the field, given its nature, is in a state of constant change. This is a difficult and challenging experience. It can be frustrating at times, but it should be viewed as an opportunity for progressive change.

Nevertheless, we are forced to act, to make choices and commitments, even though they may be tentative and subject to revision. To do otherwise is to promote social stagnation and risk the decline of our democratic culture. The authors of this proposal have chosen to commit to a democratic society rooted in the core values of justice and equality. For us, this implies that our public schools should function to further the growth of such a society. This includes educational experiences that help to emancipate and empower students so that they can develop the critical, technical and practical competence necessary to participate in a democratic society.

Our proposal is one possible way of accomplishing this goal. There may be several others and some might work better. Yet we would question any proposal that did not address this central concern of social education. We hope ours will stimulate discussion and action in this direction.

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Alan Griffin and Reflective Theory

Shirley H. Engle

Alan Griffin, 1907–1964, was a leading scholar in developing a reflective theory of teaching in the social studies in the United States. Griffin's dissertation, "A Philosophical Approach to the Subject Matter Preparation of Teachers of History," completed at Ohio State in 1942, is one of the clearest statements ever written concerning the goals of the social studies in a democracy as they relate to the learning process, to the content, and to the teaching methods employed in social studies instruction.

Because Griffin's dissertation was never published, nor even included in McPhies' 1959 list of dissertations, most of us learned of it from an article written by Lawrence Metcalf, one of Griffin's students, entitled "Research in Teaching the Social Studies," which appeared in N.L. Gage's *Handbook of Research in Teaching*, American Research Association (1963).

By all accounts, Griffin was a person of extraordinary wit and intelligence. He was deeply committed to the democratic ideal both in mind and in his daily life. He was rightly famous for these attributes in his day at Ohio State University where he had been a student and a long-time faculty member.

Griffin's ideas were heavily influenced by John Dewey. His mentor at Ohio State was Boyd Bode, the brightest star in a clutch of young Deweyan scholars at Ohio State including, among others, Gordon Hullfish, with whom Griffin did much of his work.

Griffin was at heart an enthusiastic Deweyist but he accepted Deweyism with a characteristic Griffin twist. He resisted the idea, dear to the Progressives, of learning by doing, which he associated with immediately useful but otherwise menial kinds of learning; instead, he embraced the idea of learning by reflection.

He accepted social problems as a proper concern of study; indeed he thought it imperative that so called "touchy" areas in our society be opened up for full scrutiny, arguing that this would never be done with evenhandedness if not done in school. He also saw usefulness in the study of disciplines, providing the study was directed to examination of beliefs and providing the study was done in the reflective rather than expository mood.

Griffin taught as he preached. Although he wrote very little following his now well-known dissertation, he was generally recognized at Ohio State to be a brilliant and erudite teacher. His classes were exercises in reflective teaching. He encouraged his students to question and doubt their beliefs about matters of fact and matters of value. He encouraged and helped them to discover the factual and philosophical grounds, if any, for holding to these beliefs. Griffin was more concerned that students learn to think and enjoy thinking than that they cover material or possess conventional answers to the usual questions.

Griffin's ideas were spread by his students. Between 1942 and 1964, hundreds of Ohio State undergraduates benefited from his tutelage and many succumbed to his ideology. In addition, Griffin worked with a good number of doctoral students at Ohio State, many of whom are well known in the profession today.

Griffin had very little to say directly on the problem of scope and sequence. One can only hazard a guess as to what he might have said. Concerning the renewed interest of social studies in scope and sequence, I think Griffin would have said that without a clear vision of purpose as embodied in the democratic ideal, the effort would be futile. Griffin might have stated; we need to avoid the false notion that once any subject matter has been covered in a textbook, courses of study or the like, something useful has been learned.

It is the beliefs people hold and the better grounding of these beliefs as reflective thought proceeds that are the goals of the social studies. We should continue in curriculum development to select that content, which is richest in potential for reflection and belief building. Only from this perspective can the development of scope and sequence in the social studies be useful in furthering democratic citizenship.

Note

This vignette has been adapted from an article on Alan Griffin, 1907–1964, by Shirley H. Engle, which appeared in *Journal of Thought*, 7 (Fall 1982).

Shirley H. Engle is a Professor Emeritus of Education at Indiana University, where he was the Associate Dean for Advanced Studies.

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William B. Stanley is a Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at Louisiana State University.

Jack Nelson is Dean of the School of Education at San Jose State University in California.

Social Studies Within A Global Education

Willard M. Kniep

Educating for citizenship has been and remains a central mission of the entire curriculum in elementary and secondary schools. A global education extends that mission by enlarging the vision and meaning of citizenship to include not only the local community, the state, and the nation, but also the global community.

This vision of citizenship is rooted in two realities that have become more and more apparent since the end of the Second World War. First, today as never before, all human beings live in a multi-boundary world: not simply a world of nation-states, but one with a diversity of worldwide systems in which all people affect and are affected by others across the globe.[1] Second, humanity is increasingly threatened by problems that cannot be solved by actions taken only at the national level. For a number of our most pressing environmental and social problems—contamination of the environment, warming of the atmosphere, world hunger, international terrorism, the nuclear threat—there will either be international solutions or no solutions at all.[2]

Global education is anchored to a belief that there is a critical need in the United States for schools to better prepare young people for life in a world increasingly characterized by pluralism, interdependence and change.[3] The most common approach to bringing global education into schools has been through infusion into the existing curricula rather than by restructuring, replacing or creating courses. That is changing as state legislatures and boards of education, recognizing the need for global/international dimensions in education, increasingly support curricular changes and appropriations for global education.[4] This in turn has created a need for better descriptions of the substance of global education and for tools to assist in the process of curriculum development.

In the extended view of citizenship embodied in a global education, social studies continues with a specific mandate and special responsibility for providing citizenship education: to equip every student in U.S. schools to live and participate fully and responsibly in all aspects of a global society.

In a global education, social studies goals will be derived from the requirements of citizenship in a democratic society that is one of the most dominant and powerful actors in today's interdependent world. For better or worse our culture influences the entire world. Our dominance of the international economy and our high standard of living both depend on and affect peoples and nations in all parts of the earth. This extraordinary position, and the privileges and responsibilities that it implies for U.S. citizenship, must be reflected in our definition of the social studies.

The content of social studies is drawn primarily from history, the social sciences and humanities. But we must also acknowledge the contributions of other fields like the natural sciences, journalism, future studies, policy studies, development studies, and environmental studies. Furthermore, we should emphasize the interdisciplinary nature of social studies, since the future is likely to require more integrative thinking, not less. In a global education, the content of social studies would serve to illuminate important national and international realities—diversity, interdependence, conflict and change.

The way we teach must reflect the experience and development of our learners. But even more important to achieving our citizenship goal, we must place our students actively in the center of the learning process. If our students are to think globally as they act locally,[5] if they are to be actively at the center of their world,[6] and if they are to be engaged with what we want them to learn,[7] then social studies must be taught in ways that make learning active, interactive, hands-on and engaging.

Goals

Knowledge

The NCSS 1979 Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines envisioned three particular functions for the knowledge component of the curriculum: to provide a historical perspective, to help a person perceive patterns and systems, and to provide the foundation for social participation.[8]

That vision is as valid today as it was in 1979. In a global education, the historical perspective will include a grasp of the evolution of universal human values and unique world views, the historical development of contemporary global systems, and the antecedent conditions and causes of today's global issues and problems. The systems perspective will enable students to see themselves, their communities, and their nation as actors in and on economic, political, ecological and technological systems extending throughout the globe. Knowledge as a basis for social participation must include not only historical and systems perspectives but an understanding of the causes, the effects and potential solutions for the great problems and issues of our time.

Abilities

Among the most important goals of a global education are the development of abilities to identify perspectives, see patterns, trace linkages and cause and effect relationships, and expand the repertoire of choice in solving problems.[9] Social

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studies obviously has a key role to play in the development of these abilities. As Robert Hanvey has persuasively argued however, we must state them in the context of our other goals and we must pursue them holistically in our curricula. Doing so creates a reason and need for our students to use them as a natural part of their study. To do otherwise not only violates the principle of "wholeness" that is basic to global education but perpetuates the false dichotomy between content and process that has plagued the social studies.[10]

In forming our goals within this domain we would do well to differentiate between our students' *capacities* to do certain things by virtue of being human, and their needs to acquire certain abilities and skills.

Our students come to us with the capacity to think and reason. From infancy they have engaged in "critical thinking" as they have seen and analyzed relationships, applied information to new situations, made predictions, synthesized information from multiple sources, and formed judgments based on what they know. One of our goals in social studies should be to engage their intellectual capacities by providing the opportunity and context to do so.

Students also come to us with the need to acquire certain abilities and skills and to extend and apply others. Social studies has a special responsibility for helping students develop skill in using the tools of scientific inquiry as modeled by social scientists and historians. Its very nature requires students to gather data through observation, interviews, surveys and reading; to organize data using charts, maps, models, field notes and other tools; and to communicate what they have learned in various ways.

Valuing

Values are embedded in the content we choose for study, in the teaching and learning processes we employ, and in the structure of social and physical environments. Our choices in these areas should be guided by our goals.

A primary goal of social studies should be for our students to develop perspectives, concerns, tendencies and standards for their role as citizens of a democratic society in an interdependent world. If our programs are successful, students' perspectives will help them to see their linkages to others; their concerns will be for life, individual responsibility, human rights, and ecological balance; their tendencies will be toward participation, collaboration, acceptance of diversity, and peaceful resolution of conflict; and their standards will include justice, equity, self-determination, individual freedoms, human dignity, and honesty.

The content that we select should ground students in a basic knowledge of the values of their own cultures and society, and should engage them in examining the values of others in order to see the commonality and diversity among humanity. Both the processes that we employ and the social and physical structures that we put in place must model in microcosm the values that we affirm.

Social Participation

To claim citizenship education as the central focus and mandate of the social studies we must identify social participation as one of our major goals. As the 1979 Guidelines assert, the knowledge, abilities and values in social studies programs come to fruition in social participation.[11]

The goal of social studies should be to equip students for responsible and effective participation in all of the systems in which they live. In the best of all possible worlds, as a result of their social studies programs, students would participate in democratic institutions knowing how and why they work, with full awareness of the rights and responsibilities that go with participation. Furthermore, students would be led to economic decisions that maximize individual and social benefits—knowing that these decisions are dependent on and have consequences for others around the world—and to life-style decisions that contribute to personal well-being and pleasure with consideration for social and ecological benefits and costs.

Ultimately, social studies programs must be about empowerment. That is, students must see that they have a role in making the world a safer, more just and equitable place for humanity. It is not enough to know about persistent problems and issues, nor is it sufficient to be able to think and talk rationally and creatively about alternative solutions and to identify the values dilemmas inherent in them. Education becomes complete only when it moves us and provides us with the means and opportunity to act to affect local, national and global problems.[12]

Scope and Sequence

The scope of any curriculum should not be limited by tradition or by familiar topics that have always been taught, even if in a new way.[13] Rather, the determinants should be the purposes that we have set out for social studies, our best analysis of the current realities in which our students live, the requirements of citizenship in the 21st century, and an understanding of the basic nature and elements of those realities from the

Conceptual Themes for the Social Studies

1. INTERDEPENDENCE	The idea that we live in a world of systems in which the actors and components interact to make up a unified, functioning whole. *Related concepts:* causation, community, exchange, government, groups, interaction, systems.
2. CHANGE	The idea that the process of movement from one state of being to another is a universal aspect of the planet and is an inevitable part of life and living. *Related concepts:* adaptation, cause and effect, development, evolution, growth, revolution, time.
3. CULTURE	The idea that people create social environments and systems comprised of unique beliefs, values, traditions, language, customs, technology, and institutions as a way of meeting basic human needs, and shaped by their own physical environments and contacts with other cultures. *Related concepts:* adaptation, aesthetics, diversity, language, norms, roles, values, space/time.
4. SCARCITY	The idea that an imbalance exists between relatively unlimited wants and limited available resources necessitating the creation of systems for deciding how resources are to be distributed. *Related concepts:* conflict, exploration, migration, opportunity cost, policy, resources, specialization.
5. CONFLICT	The idea that people and nations often have differing values and opposing goals resulting in disagreement, tensions, and sometimes violence necessitating skill in co-existence, negotiation, living with ambiguity and conflict resolution. *Related concepts:* authority, collaboration, competition, interests/positions, justice, power, rights.

scholarship of history, social science and other disciplines.

The scope of the social studies curriculum, then, should reflect the present and historical realities of a global society. As a way to bring some order to thinking about those realities, I propose four essential elements of study in a global education that set the boundaries for the scope of the social studies curriculum.[14]

1. **The Study of Human Values**—both *universal values* defining what it means to be human, and *diverse values* derived from group membership and contributing to unique world views.
2. **The Study of Global Systems**—including the global *economic, political, ecological* and *technological* systems in which we live.
3. **The Study of Global Issues and Problems**—including *peace and security* issues, national and international *development* issues, local and global *environmental* issues, and *human rights* issues.
4. **The Study of Global History**—focusing on the evolution of universal and diverse human values, the historical development of contemporary global systems, and the antecedent conditions and causes of today's global issues.

Every effort should be made to insure that the plan or the sequence for organizing a social studies curriculum with this scope retains the holistic character of global education. Doing so will make it more possible for students to capture the sense of interdependence characterizing the modern world. Furthermore, the sequence of study should lead to broad conceptual understanding of patterns and relationships while keeping students at the center of their learning.

As a way of achieving consistency with these principles, I propose the use of themes as basic organizers for the social studies curriculum. The use of themes to organize thinking and focus attention abounds in daily life in literature, music, advertising and political campaigns. In the social studies curriculum, themes have a similar function—as means for focusing attention, for making connections among disparate elements across curricula, and for applying what is learned to the rest of life.

This thematic model uses three types of themes for curriculum organization derived from the structural elements of the disciplines underlying the social studies. Each discipline uses *concepts* for organizing inquiry and for describing its structure and view of reality. Each studies certain *phenomena* that delimit its field of inquiry. And each focuses on *persistent problems* for which its knowledge may provide explanations or solutions.

Conceptual Themes

Work within social studies should be organized around concepts: the big ideas forming the mental structures and language that human beings use for thinking about and describing the world. The particular concepts used as curricular themes are characteristically abstract and relational. They are not labels for real, concrete things but generally describe how people, things and events relate to one another. Such concepts, while shared in people's language and thinking about the world, are idiosyncratic to an extent since they are individually formed and reflect the transaction between a person's prior knowledge and experience and the meaning taken from new experience.

The five conceptual themes listed and defined below have been selected as basic curriculum organizers because they are essential to the development of a global perspective. They are metaconcepts in the sense that they consistently appear in the language and thinking of the social and natural sciences and because they serve as organizers around which other concepts tend to cluster.

Phenomenological Themes

Topical organization of textbooks and curricula focused on people, places and events are common in social studies. One of the problems with this approach is that, by focusing on a single entity or event such as a nation or a war, we often overemphasize uniquenesses and differences while ignoring similarities and interconnectedness—an outcome that runs directly counter to developing a global perspective. In a global education, phenomenological themes would be selected for their contribution to better understanding the world's systems, cultures and historical evolution.

Phenomenological themes fall in two categories. The first is the actors and components playing major roles in the world's systems or within the sphere of human cultures and values. Actors meeting these criteria include specific nations, organizations, religious and cultural groups, significant individuals, and institutions. Components include geographic regions, significant documents, geological features, landforms, and systems and subsystems.

The second category of phenomenological themes is comprised of major events. Such events, both historical and contemporary, are selected because of their contribution to the development of contemporary world systems and/or the evolution of diversity and commonality of human values and cultures.

Specific phenemona are chosen as themes because we are convinced they are essential to our students' understanding of the world. Individual choices depend, to a large extent, on the needs and location of our students. For students in the U.S., knowing the history, roles and values of their own community, state and nation is critical to understanding the world's systems and the interaction and evolution of cultures and values. So too, their historical perspective must include the major events in the development of their own country. Students will comprehend the limits and possibilities for choice in the world they will inherit, however, only if our own pedagogical choices include the broad range of actors, components and events that continue to shape the systems and values of our diverse planet.

Persistent Problem Themes

These themes embrace the global issues and problems characterizing the modern world. By studying persistent problems, students can more clearly see their interdependent nature and how a variety of actors, themselves included, can affect such problems. The study of persistent problems would be incomplete unless it contributes to an understanding of their historical antecedents and the ways in which problems, and their solutions, relate to cultural perspectives and human values.

It is possible to generate a lengthy list of specific persistent problems that plague us globally and locally. However, the vast majority of problems seem to fall into the following four categories.[15]

- *Peace and Security*
    - the arms race
    - East-West relations
    - terrorism
    - colonialism
    - democracy vs. tyranny
- *National/International Development*
    - hunger and poverty
    - overpopulation
    - North-South relations
    - appropriate technology
    - international debt crisis
- *Environmental Problems*
    - acid rain
    - pollution of streams
    - depletion of rain forests
    - nuclear waste disposal
    - maintenance of fisheries
- *Human Rights*
    - apartheid
    - indigenous homelands
    - political imprisonment
    - religious persecution
    - refugees

Persistent problems, by their very nature, permeate every level of existence—from global to national to local—with their symptoms and causes. Moreover, the solutions to persistent problems will come through both individual behaviors taken collectively and policy decisions taken multilaterally. Because of this, themes in this category consistently provide opportunities for students to practice their roles as citizens by participating in programs to alleviate local versions of global problems (e.g., poverty) or local efforts to address global problems (e.g., famine in Ethiopia).

Placement of Themes by Grade Level

The curricular model I have presented is intended to be a tool for generating a scope and sequence in social studies at the local level. It places the social studies program at the center of an overall school program comprising a global education.

As an aid to understanding how the model leads to curricular decisions and implementation at the local level, I offer the following description of a K–12 social studies curriculum as one example of how a school district can translate the goals and principles of the model into a scope and sequence. To achieve a degree of brevity and simplicity of language in the description, I am presenting it as the program of a specific school district—the Ideal Unified School District—located in the best of all possible worlds. It is intended to be a generalizable example of the decisions that need to be made by any school district—involving school administrators, curriculum specialists, teachers and the school board—in the process of determining what is to be taught, how it is to be taught, and in what order.

The Ideal District, in addition to adopting the goals and elements of the global education model for social studies, has based its program on the following assumptions about human development and learning:

- Human beings function as whole organisms: thought, speech, emotion and psychomotor activities occur simultaneously and in concert. Therefore learning is a holistic enterprise in which artificial separation of instruction into content, skills, values, etc., is to be avoided whenever possible.
- Learning is basically an active and interactive process. Methods that cast the learner in a passive role should be used sparingly and avoided wherever possible.
- The younger the learner or the more unfamiliar the subject, the greater the need to provide opportunities for student interaction with concrete examples in instructional sequences.
- Conceptual understanding is built on repeated contact with a variety of real people, places and events that are exemplars of the concept to be developed.

Elementary Program

The Ideal elementary program will be implemented primarily through teacher-made thematic units. These units, using the community as a laboratory, are aimed at developing skill in the use of scientific processes by taking advantage of opportunities to make observations, conduct interview and surveys, and analyze and solve issues and problems. They include a variety of primary source materials, trade books, media and other resources.[16]

The development of a conceptual foundation is the first priority of the elementary program. Therefore, each of the conceptual themes has been adopted as the organizing focus of study, with increasing levels of sophistication, at several points in the elementary curriculum. The second priority is the development of social participation skills, reflected in the designation of persistent problem themes at each grade, so children will begin to see themselves actively in the role of citizen.

In the early elementary years, the program assigns responsibility for direct instruction related to each of the conceptual themes at specific grade levels.[17] The District has not specified the content of units in the early grades, but has given teachers the opportunity and support to design their own units of instruction.

Similarily, the District has assigned persistent problem themes to grade levels with the expectation that teachers will design units to engage their students in local manifestations of global problems and issues. The district has also established a norm that units are to be interdisciplinary whenever possible and themes are to be used to focus and provide a context for work in areas such as writing, literature study and arithmetic.

Beginning with grade 4, the District has made the social studies program more content-specific. However, the emphasis continues to be on thematic organization of that content. As a result, the program in the upper elementary grades more nearly approximates a course structure while retaining the interdisciplinary potential of the thematic unit.

Following is an abbreviated summary of the program for the elementary grades:

Grade 1: The assigned conceptual themes are *Interdependence* and *Scarcity*. In the Interdependence Units, student inquiry will focus on the linkages among people and the roles they assume in social situations such as the classroom, recreational activities, or community workplaces; on the mutual dependencies among living and between living and nonliving things in the natural environment; and on how simple mechanical and biological systems are made up of components that work together. The Scarcity Units will be designed to help students differentiate between wants and needs, and to use the economic principle of opportunity cost to analyze their own economic behaviors and the decisions that are made by households and local businesses.

Within the third assigned theme, *Environmental Problems*, students will be able to identify examples and causes of pollution and waste within the school and community, and to develop alternative solutions for these examples.

Grade 2: The assigned conceptual themes are *Change* and *Culture*. The highlights of the Change Units will be for students to identify the persistence of change in themselves and to begin to make a record of change in their community and environment using family members, friends, letters, diaries, newspaper articles, pictures and other documents as data sources. In the Culture Units students will explore the universal aspects of cultures by examining their own cultures, the culture of the classroom and school, and by looking at the cultures of children around the world through artifacts, trade books, films and other sources.

Development is the assigned problems theme. The focus of inquiry will be on hunger and poverty in the community and in other parts of the world. An essential part of the units will be for students to decide on and undertake a response to the problem.

Grade 3: The assigned conceptual theme is *Conflict*. An extended unit will enable students to recognize conflict situations and their causes and to develop skills in collaborative problem solving and conflict resolution.[18]

In the first phenomenological theme in the program, students will study local actors in the economic system. Students will identify the collaborative aspects of local workplaces, businesses and markets, and the interdependence of supply and demand in a competitive market place.

The assigned problems theme is *Peace and Security*. Units will engage students in analyzing current local and global conflicts where the underlying cause is threatened security. Emphasis will be on examining and developing alternative means of conflict resolution.

Grade 4: Study of the state will be organized around selected themes, and students will use the concept of Culture to analyze the contributions of various groups, beginning with the indigenous peoples, to the development of the state. The study of contemporary life in the state will use the theme of Interdependence to help students identify the economic, political, cultural and technological linkages of the state to the rest of the nation and world.

Environmental Problems serves as an organizing theme to engage students in inquiry about major environmental concerns of the state.

The program focuses on a phenomenological theme—components—through which to assess the contribution of the state's major landforms, river systems, forests and deserts, and major cities to its quality of life.

Grade 5: Students will study the history of the United States thematically. Rather than being organized chronologically, the program will emphasize conceptual understanding of United States development, by focusing on the components and values that make it unique among the nations of the world. Conceptually, the history will stress historical and contemporary forms of U.S. Interdependence with the rest of the world, the role of Conflict in the nation's development, and the economic evolution of the U.S. in a world of Scarcity.

Additionally, students will undertake in-depth study of selected components that contribute to the uniqueness of the U.S. as a nation, such as its Constitution, the Federal System, and the Presidency. The persistent problem of Human Rights will also be examined as students study the U.S. progress in implementing basic values of justice, equity, and individual freedom for all of its citizens.

Grade 6: The concepts of Change, Culture, Conflict, and Interdependence are used to organize the study of Latin America, Africa and Asia from historical and contemporary perspectives. The persistent problem of Development, emphasizing the linkages of U.S. citizens to the developing world, will be examined throughout the program.

The Secondary Schools Program

The programs in the junior and senior high school will shift in focus from the more generalized study of the elementary years to an emphasis on more content-specific study, and will increasingly assume a course format. The program is designed to provide depth and breadth of knowledge of content derived primarily from the adopted scope of the program. That is, the program will aim at increasing knowledge of human values, including those that characterize life in the U.S.; global systems, including the role of the U.S. and other major actors; and contemporary global problems and issues. In addition, a high priority is for students to develop a historical perspective that encompasses the growth of the U.S. and of the interdependence that characterizes today's world.

Grade 7: This program emphasizes a functional knowledge of major global systems. In the first semester, students will examine the global economic system. Beginning with the U.S. economy, the course will analyze major economic systems and the interdependence of the global economy. In the second semester, students will study political systems through a similar approach.

Concurrently, the students will be involved in an interdisciplinary course focusing on ecological systems during the first semester and technological systems the second. The course will draw most heavily on the social and natural sciences.

Grade 8: The students will explore the domain of human values, beginning with an analysis of basic values in U.S. society such as individual freedoms and rights, the work ethic, majority rule, and equity. The course will trace the origins of those values from the writings and movements that shaped Western civilization to the founding documents of the United States.

The second part of the program will take a similar approach to non-Western traditions. First priority in selecting these traditions will be to include major actors in today's world such as Islamic nations, Eastern Europe, Asia, Africa and Latin America.

Grade 9: The 9th grade program will revolve around global history, emphasizing how interdependence in the contemporary world has evolved through more or less continuous contact among civilizations during the past 2,000 years. The course will examine the results of informational, material and artistic exchange among early civilizations, and the historical contexts and impact of major migrations, explorations, exports of technology, colonizations and wars. The aim of the course will be to provide a broad historic panorama for interpreting today's international relationships.

Grade 10: Although organized chronologically, this two-semester course in United States history will emphasize the relationship of the history of the U.S. to the history of the globe using the conceptual themes as a framework for analysis. The course will also give specific attention to unique U.S. approaches to problems of development, the environment, human rights, and peace and security—both domestically and in the international arena.

Grade 11: The objects of study will be major actors in the modern world. The course will focus on nation-states as major actors in the global political/economic arena. Students will compare approaches selected nations have taken to persistent problems and analyze their basic social/political values. The role of other global actors—the United Nations, non-governmental organizations, multinational corporations, unions and grass-roots movements—will also be analyzed.

Grade 12: The senior year will provide ample opportunity for students to apply the themes and substance of the previous years to the study of contemporary global problems and issues. In the first semester, using the conceptual themes as a framework for systems analysis, students will pursue an inquiry project—collecting and analyzing data, drawing conclusions, and developing alternative solutions—leading to a senior thesis related to the problem of their choice.

In the second semester they will participate in a community project in which they will implement some aspects of their thesis. This senior project, undertaken in cooperation with a community service organization, a political party, or a non-profit organization, will provide students the culminating school-linked opportunity to experience the role of citizen in a democratic society within a real-world setting.

Notes

[1] A description provided, as part of their rationale, by Alger and Harf (1984).

[2] Fasheh (1985) argues that these problems should be the driving force in international programs.

[3] See, for example, Reischauer (1973), an oft-quoted rationale for changing education to reflect current global realities.

[4] Different approaches have been taken by different states. New York, for example, is making the international dimension part of the Regent's exam and has mandated the restructuring of a number of social studies courses. Arkansas has mandated infusion of a global perspective throughout the curriculum and a global studies course at the tenth grade. California has appropriated funds to establish international studies resource centers, under the direction of Stanford University, throughout the state. Florida has just established a state office for international education.

The recent report by Irving Morrissett (1986) indicated that 23 states now have requirements for courses in world or global studies. In 10 of those cases, the requirement or recommendation was adopted within the past 4–5 years.

[5] A phrase coined by Rene Dubois, quoted by Cheryl Charles (1985).

[6] One of John Goodlad's (1986) theses.

[7] Newmann (1986) points out that the lack of student engagement with the social studies is one of the major problems that the profession faces.

[8] National Council for the Social Studies (1979).

[9] The skills are presented by Hanvey (1978) in the context of knowledge of perspectives, state of the planet, and global dynamics.

[10] The Task Force on Scope and Sequence (1984) asserts that "skills are developed through sequential systematic instruction and practice" and "can be grouped in a problem-solving sequence" (p. 252). No empirical or practical evidence is provided to support this view. Such a view has its origins in behaviorist theory and runs counter to most other theories of human development and learning that take a more holistic view. Later, the Task Force repeats this argument, but then says that "using and applying skills is the best form of practice." I would argue that they are the only forms that we should be using.

[11] National Council for the Social Studies (1979).

[12] Harlan Cleveland (1986) argues that we are all "policy makers" and that this should be the focus of our programs.

[13] The Task Force (1984) argued that "it is not fruitful to try to define the scope of social studies in terms of wholly new and unfamiliar topics and/or subject matter" (p. 252).

[14] The explication of these elements is contained in Kniep (1986).

[15] Ibid.

[16] The process of developing thematic units is described in Kniep (1979).

[17] Because the emphasis in the kindergarten program is on socialization and structured play activities, formal instruction is minimized. However, the conceptual themes, especially interdependence and culture, can be used to organize and focus those activities.

[18] Johnson and Johnson (1984) present approaches for cooperation and collaborative conflict resolutions. These skills are particularly effective when undertaken in the context of inquiry about significant content.

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Willard M. Kniep is on leave from Arizona State University in order to direct a national teacher education project for Global Perspectives in Education.

Paul R. Hanna's Scope and Sequence

Jane Bernard Powers

Paul R. Hanna's contribution to our continuing conversation about scope and sequence is significant by any standard of evaluation. Hanna mapped out a design for social education that is reflected in elementary social studies today. Inspired by his reading of H. G. Wells and his own belief that "we are emerging out of nationhood into a global community," Hanna formulated his ideas about scope and sequence in the late 1920s and early 1930s as a faculty member at Teacher's College, Columbia, and by doing consulting work for Virginia elementary schools.[1]

Hanna conceptualized the scope of social studies as "nine categories of basic human activities, . . . expressing, producing, transporting, communicating, educating, recreating, protecting, governing and creating."

He thought of the sequence of social studies as a series of expanding communities from the family to the global community. "Everyone of us live simultaneously in all of these communities: the family, the school, the neighborhood, the local, state, the regional, [and] the national," Hanna wrote in a 1965 article outlining his scope and sequence.[2]

Beyond the national, Hanna believes, we all are members of regional communities such as the Inter-American, the Atlantic, and the Pacific, and we are all citizens in a global community. Thus, schools generally and social studies programs specifically must prepare students to function effectively and provide leadership in all these domains.

Hanna stated in a recent interview that a primary goal of social studies is to educate future citizens "to improve the quality of life in each community." Learning to participate responsibly in all our communities, but especially in the global community is, for Hanna, a critical need in today's world. We ought to prepare students who can "create organizations to make it possible to live peaceably" on planet Earth.

According to Hanna, the creators of these organizations and structures must be taught by teachers who have a good liberal arts education that includes a strong emphasis on history. Preservice education for teachers must incorporate a solid foundation in the humanities and social sciences. They must know history, literature and philosophy. Education in "pure pedagogy is not sufficient," for the teachers who will provide intellectual leadership for future generations of citizens.

Notes

[1] Martin Gill, "Paul R. Hanna: The Evolution of an Elementary Social Studies Textbook Series" (Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1974), 38–63.

[2] Paul R. Hanna, "Design for a Social Studies Program," in *Focus on the Social Studies, A Report from the Department of Elementary School Principals*, National Education Association, 1965.

Other comments were recorded by Jane Bernard Powers in an interview with Hanna on April 22, 1986, at his office in the Hoover Institute, Stanford, CA.

Jane Bernard Powers is a Supervisor of Student Teachers at San Francisco State University.